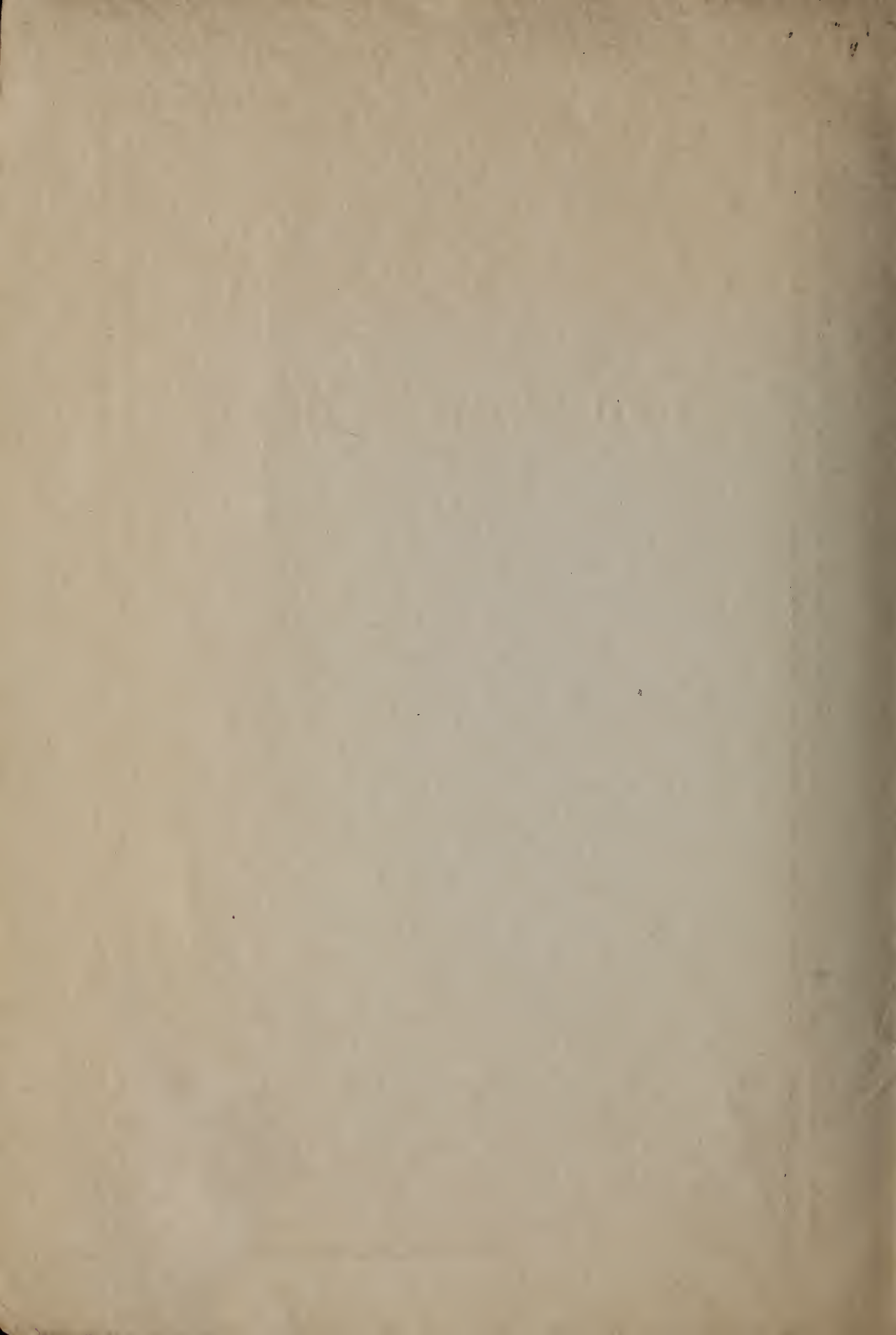


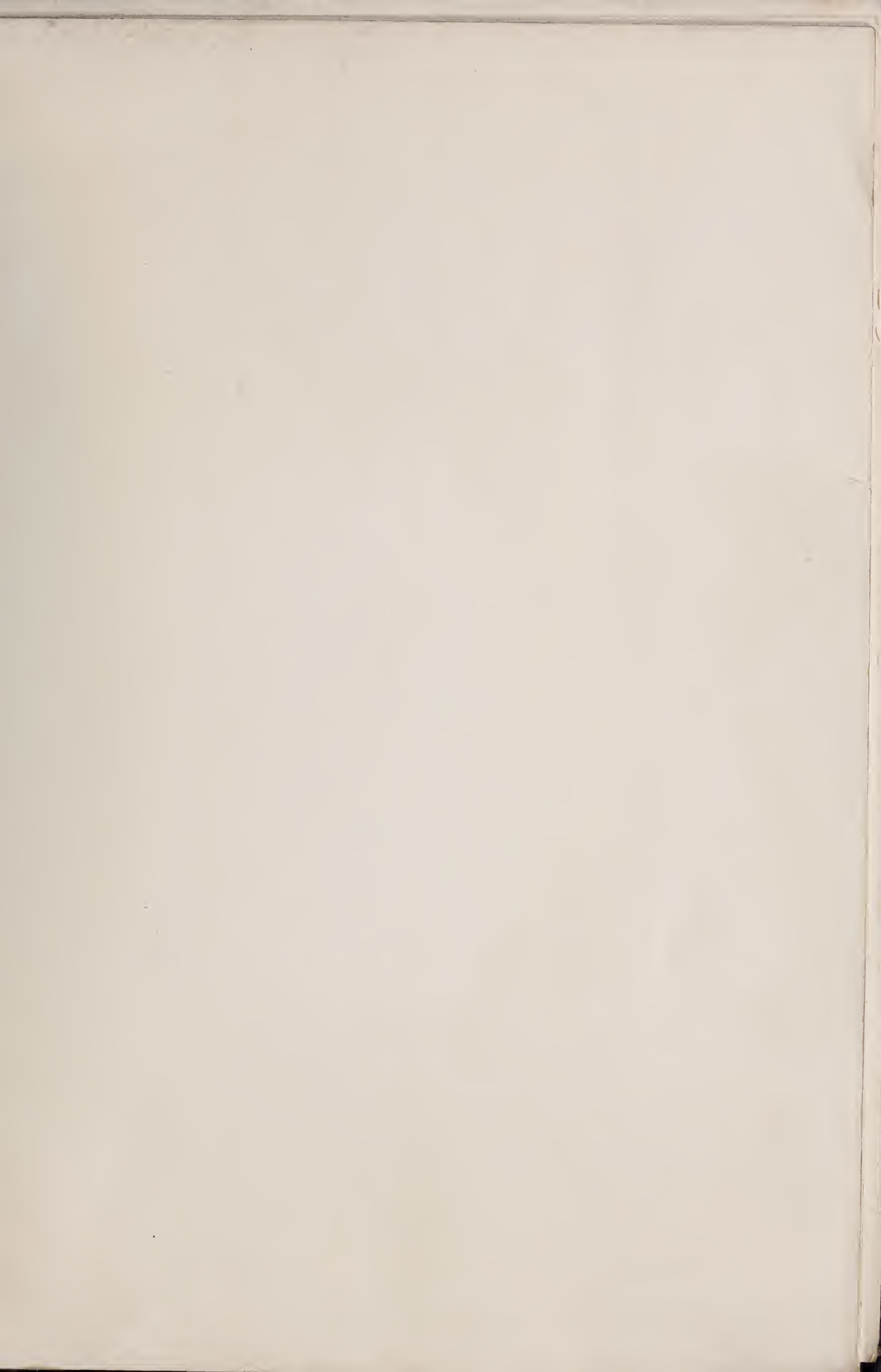
131
3
py 1

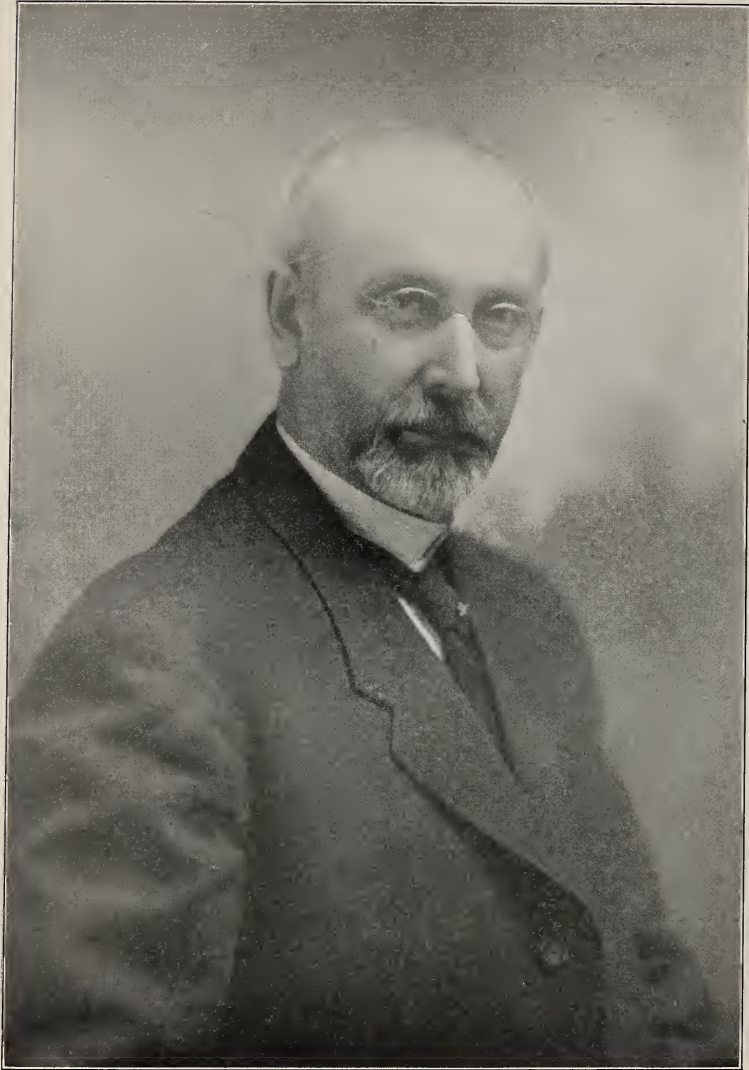


European Schools

RANDOLPH







CORLISS FITZ RANDOLPH

A REPORT OF A VISIT TO
EUROPEAN SCHOOLS

INCLUDING

ENGLAND, WALES, SCOTLAND, HOLLAND
AND GERMANY

JANUARY—MARCH, 1909

By

CORLISS FITZ RANDOLPH

Of the Public School Principals' Association of Newark, New Jersey

(Reprinted from the SCHOOL EXCHANGE)

NEWARK, NEW JERSEY

JULY, 1909

L A131
R3

COPYRIGHTED 1909

TRANSFERRED FROM
COPYRIGHT OFFICE

5 DEC 1972



At a regular meeting of the Public School Principals' Association of Newark, New Jersey, held May 27, 1908, the following preamble and resolutions, offered by Mr. Alexander J. Glennie, Principal of the Miller Street School, were adopted by a unanimous vote :

In view of the fact that the City of Newark expects representation in the selection of teachers to visit European schools during the coming year, and because a member of the Principals' Association would have through the Association, peculiar opportunities for making his report useful and effective by reaching all the public schools of the city,

THEREFORE, BE IT RESOLVED : 1. That the Newark Public School Principals' Association respectfully asks those with whom the power of appointment rests, to include one public school principal among those representing Newark as visitors to European schools.

2. That the Principals' Association would regard with pleasure the selection of Principal Corliss Fitz Randolph as representative of this organization. His personal and professional qualities are such as make excellent equipment for the purposes contemplated in the visit to European Schools, and to insure a discriminating, ample, and valuable report of the visit.

3. That a copy of these resolutions be addressed to the Board of Education, and a copy also be sent to the City Superintendent of Schools.

The appointment recommended in the foregoing resolutions, was made by the Board of Education of the City of Newark, through its Committee on Instruction and Educational Supplies: on June 22nd, 1908.

REPORT OF VISIT TO EUROPEAN SCHOOLS.

INTRODUCTION.

To the Members of the Committee on Teachers and Educational Supplies, Board of Education, Newark, New Jersey:

GENTLEMEN:

I beg to submit this a report of my visit to European schools,—a privilege I enjoyed by the appointment of your Committee.

I sailed from New York City on January 13, 1909, and reached New York, on my return, March 21, following, my stay being prolonged a few days by circumstances beyond my control.

Schools Visited.

During my absence, I visited schools in London, Birkenhead, Liverpool, and Manchester, besides Eton College, in England; Swansea, in Wales; Glasgow and Edinburgh, in Scotland; Leyden, in Holland; and Berlin and Munich, in Germany.

Personal Interviews.

Besides visits to schools, I sought interviews, as far as possible, not only with school officials, but with others in professional and business life who were without direct connection with schools, in order to correct the perspective of the view I obtained from the schools and school officials, of education and its influence upon the people.

Letters of Introduction.

In this I was greatly aided by letters of introduction which I carried with me from this country from professional and business men who were interested in the object of my visit. The most important of these letters was one from Hon. Elmer Ellsworth Brown, United States Commissioner of Education, obtained through the courtesy of Mr. Charles B.

Gilbert, formerly City Superintendent of Schools of this city. This and the letter of appointment from your Committee were the means of a cordial welcome wherever credentials were needed.

Courtesy of Steamship Company.

The courtesy shown teachers by the White Star Steamship Company, upon whose ships I traveled, through arrangements made for that purpose by the National Civic Federation and Sir Alfred Mosely, through Mr. J. Bruce Ismay, president of the International Mercantile Marine Company, is deserving of more than a passing notice. Although arrangements were made for all the teachers to travel second class and at a mere nominal rate, there was surely no discrimination against us on that account. Indeed, it would almost seem as if the teachers were made a sort of preferred class of passengers, so constant and so minute was the attention paid to their comfort.

Entertainment and Facilities for Visiting Schools.

For our entertainment in Great Britain, generous provision had been made generally throughout the Kingdom by Sir Alfred Mosely, at whose suggestion the visit was organized, and by those who co-operated with him. This was particularly true of the social life. Series of receptions were organized in all the principal cities of England and Scotland, and the facilities for visiting the historic points of interest to teachers were made as simple as possible.

Sir Alfred Mosely and his co-workers likewise provided means whereby our opportunities for visiting schools and observing their work were greatly expedited.

BRITISH SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

The average American is bewildered by what, for want of a better term, may be called the British system of education; by which I mean the various educational organizations and institutions which contribute fundamentally to British national education, and which, as a system, is simple enough to the British mind.

Class Distinction.

First of all, British education is profoundly and fundamentally affected by social caste which, in its way, is as universal, and as unalterably fixed, as the caste system of China, or India, or any other Oriental country. This does not wholly appear to the casual observer, but a little patient, vigilant observation soon discloses it, and unless it is disclosed, the visitor to their schools is always at a disadvantage, and held at arm's length from his work. Many British people affect to believe that caste lines are "breaking down," but after several conferences with those who would appear to be qualified to judge, in both England and Scotland, I am convinced that there is, at least, very grave doubt of the truth of this assertion. Personally, I was unable to see any tangible evidences of it.

Taking the teachers themselves as a convenient illustration of how the caste problem works out, we will observe the following general classification:

First: The teachers of the schools known as the county council elementary schools, or board schools, or their equivalent, form a class by themselves—men and women, head masters and head mistresses, and assistants, all.

Second: Next come the teachers of the county council secondary schools, or their equivalent, with all the members of their respective staffs.

Third: Here may be classed the

teachers of the large number of proprietary schools throughout the kingdom, of which those of the Girls' Day School Trust, are fair examples.

Fourth: Finally, at the top of the scale stand the great endowed public schools, so-called, like Eton, Harrow Rugby, and Charterhouse. Various other groups of schools, such as private schools, and parish schools, are classified, socially, according to their respective constituencies.

Generally speaking, the people themselves may be said to be classified, socially, into the nobility, the middle classes, and the lower classes. The middle and lower classes are subdivided according to certain well defined, but arbitrary, laws. For example, suppose two brothers, equally well endowed, mentally, and equally well educated, who have hitherto been received with equal favor in the same walks of social life, inherit like sums of money from their father, and decide to embark in business, separately, using all their respective fortunes for that purpose. Both enter the mercantile business, but one confines himself to wholesale trade, and the other gives his entire attention to retail business. By that token alone, they place themselves in wholly different social worlds, between which there is a great gulf fixed, across which they may not pass.

An American woman whom I met living in England, who had entered her son in one of the endowed "public" schools of that country last fall, told me that the teacher having immediate charge of her son apologized to her for the presence in the school of the son of a building contractor, who had in some way been accepted in the school by mistake, and with whom her son must associate.

A dentist, who, I am told, must now complete a full medical course, as if he

were intending to practice medicine instead of dentistry, before he is permitted to take the technical course in dentistry, is not received on an equal footing, socially, with a physician, since a dentist is regarded essentially as a mechanic or artisan, and is assigned to a lower social stratum than a physician, while the latter is regarded as a purely professional man in the rank along with the clergyman and lawyer.

As a natural result of this difference in social organization between Great Britain and our own country, a comparison between the schools of the two countries is very difficult; since, for example, the County Council schools of London, which are popularly supposed to correspond to the public schools of the large cities of this country, are after all very different in their constituencies and even, in the last analysis, in their ultimate aims. These differences should be borne in mind constantly in considering British schools, or questions pertaining to them.

In Scotland, class distinction is not so much involved as in England, and perhaps Wales is under less restraint from that source than England. The Welsh people say so, but my stay in Wales was too brief for me to observe how it works out.

The general control of education throughout England and Wales is vested in a Board of Education with offices in London, but the schools of England and Wales are administered under two separate acts of Parliament although in large part they are identical. The schools of Scotland are administered by a separate board and separate act, as will appear subsequently.

GOVERNMENT CONTROL OF SCHOOLS.

The Board of Education deals with the curriculum, determining its scope, and fixing the general standard of edu-

cation for the country at large, and apportioning the funds drawn from the Imperial Treasury for school purposes. The schools of the different parts of the United Kingdom are administered, however, according to the terms of the particular Parliamentary Acts applying to them, respectively. Thus, the schools of Scotland are under control of the Imperial Government through the Scotch Education Department with offices in London, according to the terms of the Scotch Education Acts.

Local Control.

Then there are local authorities; as, for example, in London, the immediate control of the schools is vested in the London County Council. The County Council, in turn, directs its school affairs through its Committee on Education, consisting of thirty-eight members of the Council, with twelve members (six of whom are women) selected from without the Council.

Subordinate to the Education Committee of the County Council, and assisting it, is a small army of boards of managers, which come into much closer relations with the individual schools.

Non-Provided Schools.

In addition to the schools of which the County Council has complete direct control, there is a large number of other schools, known as *non-provided schools*, which are primarily church schools, but which were formerly with insufficient financial support to make them efficient. Of these schools, and all others receiving financial aid from the County Council, the latter body participates in the management.

Cost of Education.

The London County Council spends annually upon education upwards of \$27,000,000, of which about \$20,000,000 is raised by direct local taxation.

Autonomy.

These several governing bodies of varying degrees of authority work in unison, and the rights of all—including those of the head master of a school, in whom are lodged large discretionary powers—are respected.

London a Great Problem.

London, where I first visited and where I spent more time than in any

and crime, and also finds the situation still further complicated by the diversity of its educational institutions and their attendant machinery.

COUNTY COUNCIL, OR BOARD, SCHOOLS.

The County Council, or Board, Schools, of course received special attention from the American visitor, since they more nearly correspond to our public schools than any other British schools.



CLASS IN ISLINGTON HIGHER ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

other one place, is a vast problem educationally, no less to the English themselves, than to the American visitor. To the latter, it is bewildering in the extreme; but, after all, the problems which London presents to the pedagogue are essentially the same as those presented by a great cosmopolitan American city which has gathered its population from all the four corners of the earth. London, however, presents the problems of the inheritance of centuries upon centuries of poverty, indolence, squalor,

Departments.

In England and Wales the elementary schools, in which the boys and girls are kept separate except in the infant department, have three separate and distinct heads; viz., a head master for the boys' department; a head mistress for the girls' department; and a head mistress for the infant department, the latter of which corresponds in a way, to our kindergarten and the first year of the primary school. These three departments, usually all under a single

roof, are wholly independent of each other, but are expected to work in unison and harmony.

Co-ordination.

In some places, I found that the co-ordination of the work of the boys' and girls' departments, and the articulation of the infants' department with the two next above it, depended upon a single annual conference of the three heads of these several departments. In other places, there are frequent conferences, and occasionally I found a school where there was a regular weekly conference between the heads of the boys' and girls' departments. Probably there are but few schools in which there is not frequent informal interchange of information and suggestion between the heads of different departments concerning the work.

Superintendent.

In Swansea, the only city I visited in the kingdom which has a Superintendent of schools who is known by that title,* that officer labors zealously to perfect and maintain a close unity between the various departments and schools throughout the city. But in so doing he does not interfere with the independence of the head master. In other words, he exercises the functions of his office in a sane and intelligent manner, securing the results sought for by a leadership which appeals to the heads of the schools and teachers under him, without exercising compulsion.

In the cities of Glasgow and Edinburgh, much the same results are attained through the clerks of their respective school boards. Oftentimes, an intelligent, progressive head master is

encouraged to develop original plans and methods, and these, when found successful, are tactfully placed before other head masters, through the superintendent or clerk of the Board, in such a way as to secure their co-operation. In this way a spirit of growth and progress is fostered, without injury to the unity of the educational system of the municipality.

UNITY THROUGH GOVERNMENT
INSPECTION.

After all, the unity of the educational system throughout the kingdom is maintained, or sought to be maintained, through the government inspectors who are the direct personal representatives of the Board of Education of the Imperial Government.

Inspectors Erratic.

A general complaint is made, however, that these inspectors are erratic, shifting their point of view frequently, and riding a series of hobbies, which are subject to frequent periodical change as they are imported from America, averaging about once in a year and a half, or as the inspectors create hobbies of their own, or seize upon them from other sources.

CURRICULUM.

The curriculum as laid down by the Board of Education in the central office in London, with a brief abstract of the interpretation of it by the Education Committee of one of the smaller cities of England, follows, herewith, made from an advance draft printed for the private use of the members of the Committee before adoption.

For convenience in interpreting the curriculum, the child's life is divided into four periods, viz.:

* In some other places, there is an officer known as the Director of Education, whose duties are somewhat similar. But whether Director or Superintendent, the functions of such an officer in England do not appear to be quite identical with those of our superintendent.

I. The Infant School—up to seven years of age, approximately.

II. Classes *i* and *ii*,—from seven to nine years of age.

III. Classes *iii*, *iv*, *v*,—from nine to twelve years of age.

IV. Classes *vi* and upwards,—from twelve to fourteen years of age.

Period I.

In this period are included: Kindergarten occupations in which special emphasis is laid upon drawing. Knitting appears, but all other forms of needlework are entirely omitted. Reading, writing, and number-work are likewise taught. Children under five years of age should have no formal instruction in reading and number-work. For the most advanced divisions of this period, the following weekly time schedule is suggested:

	h. m.
Religious Instruction.....	2:30
Assembly, Prayers, and Dismissal.....	1:40
Registration.....	1:40
Recreation.....	2:30
Reading.....	3:30
Recitation.....	:30
Handwriting.....	2:00
Number.....	2:00
Varied occupations (including Drawing)	4:00
Nature and Object Lessons—Stories, etc.....	2:00
Physical Exercises, Singing, and Games	2:40
	25:00

Period II.

In this period the methods of instruction used in the infants' school are continued for a time, gradually changing to those employed for older pupils. Reading, oral language work, oral number-work, nature study, and geography are introduced, and a carefully organized course in needlework is entered upon, which, in the higher classes will ensure "a practical knowledge of sewing, darning, knitting, and the cutting out, making and mending of ordinary garments." An "emergency drill" (apparently in-

tended to be the equivalent of the American fire drill) is introduced in this period. Recitations should not exceed half an hour in length. The following weekly time table is submitted as suited to the approximate needs of the older pupils of the period:

	h. m.
Religious Instruction.....	3:20
Recreation.....	1:40
Registration.....	:50
English (including reading, recitation, spelling, stories, oral and written composition, transcription, penman- ship).....	11:10
Arithmetic.....	3:00
Observation lessons—Nature Study and Geography.....	2:30
Drawing.....	1:30
Manual Work—paper modelling for boys.....	1:30
Manual Work—needlework for girls.....	1:30
Music.....	1:00
Physical Exercises.....	1:00
	27:30

Period III.

In this period the fundamental subjects of reading, penmanship, and number-work are emphasized. Formal grammar (but not parsing) is introduced. A series of observation lessons of an experimental character is presented, leading up to definite training, in the higher classes, in elementary science, cooking, and laundry work. Cause and effect in geography receive special attention, and an introduction to map-making is advised. The work in history is informal—largely biographical. The boys begin mechanical drawing. The following weekly time table for older pupils, with the sexes treated separately, is suggested:

	Boys h. m.	Girls h. m.
Religious Instruction.....	3:20	3:20
Registration.....	:50	:50
English (reading, recitation, spelling, oral and written com- position, grammar, history, penmanship).....	9:30	9:00
Arithmetic.....	4:00	3:30

	Boys h. m.	Girls h. m.
Observation Lessons.....	1:20	1:20
Geography.....	1:20	1:20
Drawing.....	1:30	1:30
Hand and Eye Training for boys	1:30	
Needlework for girls.....		2:30
Music.....	1:00	1:00
Hygiene.....	:30	:30
Recreation.....		1:40
Physical Exercises.....	1:00	1:00
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	27:30	27:30

Period IV.

Period IV, or the final period, is intended for boys and girls who cannot go to secondary, or higher elementary schools, and is expected to carry forward the work, in a more advanced form, of the preceding period. The boys are expected to attend centres for handicraft, and the girls those for cooking and laundry work. A special course in domestic science is provided for the girls, which includes hygiene and the care of infants. The following is suggested as an approximate weekly time table for the advanced pupils of this period:

	Boys h. m.	Girls h. m.
Religious Instruction.....	3:20	3:20
Registration.....	:50	:50
Recreation.....	1:40	1:40
English, (reading, recitation, composition, grammar, his- tory).....	8:00	7:30
Arithmetic.....	4:30	3:00
Science.....	1:20	1:20
Geography.....	1:20	1:20
Drawing.....	1:30	1:30
Handicraft—Boys.....	2:30	
Needlework, Cooking, and Laun- dry Work—Girls.....		5:00
Music.....	1:00	1:00
Hygiene.....	:30	
Physical Exercises.....	1:00	1:00
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	27:30	27:30

The foregoing outline curriculum is intended to provide a sound general

education for children up to the age of fourteen years.*

SCOTCH SYSTEM.

How Administered.

The school system of Scotland, as differentiated from that of England and Wales, is worthy of separate consideration.

Here, as in England and Wales, the authority is dual, but, as there, one is subordinate to the other. Hypothetically, the supreme authority is vested in the "Committee of the Privy Council on Education in Scotland," but in practice it is the Scotch Education Department (abbreviated, after the British fashion, to "S. E. D.") with central offices in London, which exercises that important function.

Powers of Scotch Education Department.

This body has the exclusive power, under act of Parliament, of formulating all rules and regulations concerning the education and training of pupils and teachers in all schools receiving aid from the government; of the appointment and direction of inspectors, or supervisors, who visit the schools periodically and report to the Scotch Education Department on the results of their visits to the schools with particular reference to the buildings, their equipment, corps of teachers, and the organization, instruction, and general efficiency of the schools, as well as the fidelity of the management of the local school board or other body of governors, and the measure of success attending their efforts.

* The course of study from which this abstract is made was prepared by one of the most intelligent educators I met while abroad. His name is withheld for the reason that his Committee had not yet acted upon his report which was submitted in the form of a draft, but in a somewhat extended conference with him, in which he discussed British Elementary education freely, he assured me that there was little doubt that his report would be accepted by the Committee in practically the same form in which it was submitted.

The report may be accepted as fairly representative of what is believed by the progressive British educator to be adapted to the present day needs of the class of people patronizing public elementary schools.

Reports of Inspectors.

These reports of the inspectors not only form the basis of the annual apportionment from the Imperial Treasury paid by Parliament to the schools, but here, as in England and Wales, they likewise are the means of preserving a certain unity of organization and harmony of immediate purpose throughout the country.

Besides the two sources indicated, revenues are derived, usually in smaller amount, however, from tuition fees and local endowments.

Endowed and Private Schools.

Besides the schools under control of the public authorities, there are many excellent, well-managed endowed and private schools throughout the country,



PORTO BELLO HIGHER GRADE SCHOOL (EDINBURGH).

Local Board.

The local school board, created by public election for the sole purpose of managing the schools, has certain powers exclusively its own. It must build and maintain the schools; appoint, promote, or discharge the teaching force; and within certain restricted limits, may make its own regulations for the management of the schools directly under its charge. The local board has exclusive management of the funds derived from local taxation for school purposes.

which enjoy a large revenue from their high tuition fees.

Changes.

Certain recent changes in the school system attracted the attention of American visitors. Among the more important of these changes were the following:

i. A measure recently adopted by the Privy Council which permits greater autonomy on the part of Scottish Universities, and as a result, important changes in the curricula of these institutions are impending.

ii. The passage by Parliament on December 21, 1908, of a new measure relating to the educational affairs of Scotland solely, and known as the *Education [Scotland] Act, 1908*. This act went into effect eleven days after its passage, or January 1, 1909. It extends the general powers of the local board, and makes specific provision for the following: For medical inspection, for the education of children either mentally or physically defective, for the care and education of neglected children, additional funds for the universities and consequent closer affiliation of the universities with the Scotch Education Department. It also fixes the age of compulsory education at from five to fourteen years, except in the case of defective children, when the limit is raised to sixteen years. It likewise amends the previous law, regulates tenure of office for teachers, besides treating of numerous other phases of Scotch education.

iii. A radical change in the control of the training colleges for teachers, whereby these institutions have passed from the control of the Presbyterian Church to that of the State, resulting in a certain voice in the affairs of the Scotch universities by the Scotch Education Department.

iv. The recent acceptance by a large number of older and wealthier private and endowed schools which had hitherto remained wholly independent, of aid at the hands of the Scotch Education Department, and thus placing themselves under public control to a greater or less extent.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Length of Course.

An English school recognized as a secondary school must make provision beyond the elementary school course for the suitable education of pupils from twelve to sixteen or seventeen years of

age.¹ The secondary school course must be four years in length, except in rural districts where, for good and sufficient reasons offered in certain specific instances, the course may be but three years.*

Elementary Departments.

With the exception, possibly, of certain individual cases, it is expected, if not actually required, that the secondary school have a lower grade department, corresponding to the ordinary elementary school.**

Curriculum.

The secondary course of study must include instruction in each of the following subjects: The English language and literature, at least one other language besides English, geography, history, mathematics, science, and drawing. Pupils may take this course without taking either Latin or Greek. Physical culture is required, and the instruction in science must include practical work by the pupils. Special provision may be made for individual pupils or for special classes. Girls over fifteen years of age may substitute a course in domestic science, including housewifery, for science.†

Here it may not be inappropriate to say that one girls' secondary school which I visited, I found provided with a very attractive lunch room—really a dining hall—where all the teachers and pupils gathered for luncheon. There was served a wholesome, substantial hot luncheon, at a very reasonable price, to such as desired it. Those who preferred to do so, brought their own luncheon, and ate it in the common dining hall. The dining hall and adjoining kitchen are furnished by the

¹ Throughout Great Britain, pupils appear to be promoted from one grade to another on a basis of age, rather than according to any standard of scholastic attainment.

* Vid. *Red Code, 1908.* pp. 100-101, §§1-3.

** *Ibid.*, p. 101, §1.

† *Ibid.*, p. 102-103, §6-10.

education authorities. Then a committee of teachers undertake the management of this department. They employ a cook and other necessary help, and purchase the requisite supplies from the income, and after paying for breakage and other depreciation of the plant, the remaining profit—for there is a profit—forms a special fund for the purchase of such supplies for the school as may not be available from the school apportionment of the public funds.

A secondary school for girls must be under the charge of a mistress.

Teachers Members of School Boards.

It appears to be a common practice to make teachers in secondary schools members of the local governing body of the school.

TENDENCY OF BRITISH EDUCATION.

Utilitarian.

While these regulations apply with particular force to English and Welsh schools, for the purposes of this report, they will apply to Scottish schools as well, as indicating the tendency of British education to adapt itself to the purely utilitarian needs of the children under its tuition.

Socialistic.

Indeed, I am profoundly impressed that the entire tendency of what from an American standpoint, we may fairly call the public school education of Great Britain, is to exalt the practical side of education—the side which can be directly converted into coin of the realm, and to minimize as far as possible the purely culture side. It seems to be the long desired reply to the oft-repeated cry of socialism heard throughout England for the past thirty years, demanding that “workingmen elect their own school board and burn all the foolish reading-books at present in use, and abolish spelling as a part of education,

and teach the things necessary for all trades.”‡

This phase of British education will receive further consideration in the subsequent treatment of trade schools.

SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

In London, special schools are maintained for the blind, the deaf, and for the mentally defective, and the physically defective children. Several schools are maintained for each of these classes, and the Education Committee of the County Council frankly avow that the most difficult group to manage successfully is that of the mentally deficient. Not only are the problems which they present most difficult of solution, but their numbers as compared with the other groups of this class—the blind, the deaf, and physically deficient—are far in excess of all those of the other three groups combined.

Schools for Blind.

In the schools for the blind, among the various trades taught are the following: Chair-caning, cane and willow basket-making, hand and machine knitting, sewing and mat-making. Attention is likewise paid to manual training in wood work and in iron work. Instruction is given in gymnastics and swimming, and outdoor games are encouraged. One of these schools publishes a magazine, the articles for which are written first by the pupils of the school in Braille—a form of writing used by the blind—and then copied on the typewriter, after which the boys in one of the industrial schools do the printing.

The curriculum, in outline, is as follows:

The English Language, including speaking with clear articulation and enunciation, reading, literature, writing, composition, and recitation.

Arithmetic, including mental arithmetic

‡ Vid., e. g., Besant's *All Sorts and Conditions of Men* Chap. XLIX, et saepe.

and practical knowledge of money, weights and measures.

Knowledge of common things, including nature study and observation lessons.

History.

Geography.

Singing and music, including training in proper breathing.

Physical exercises.

Plain needlework (for girls.)

Manual instruction (not less than four hours a week.)

Schools for Deaf.

In the schools for the deaf, industrial training forms the principal feature of the instruction. The trades taught include the following: Cabinet-making, tailoring, and boat-making for the boys. The following are open to the girls: Dressmaking and laundry work. Special attention is given to outdoor games, gardening, and physical training. The boys have cricket and football clubs and attend the swimming baths.

The curriculum for these schools, includes the following:

The English Language, to be taught by the oral method where possible, and to include reading, writing, composition, and the study of literary matter.

Arithmetic, including practical knowledge of money, weights, and measures.

Knowledge of common things, including nature study and observation lessons.

History.

Geography.

Physical exercises, including training in proper breathing.

Plain needlework (for girls.)

Manual instruction (not less than four hours a week.)

Schools for Mentally Defective.

The schools for the mentally defective are by no means so well developed as those for the blind and deaf. The more difficult problems which the former present, require, of necessity, that their growth be much more cautious and slow, since in a far more complete sense does each pupil present an individual problem than do the pupils of the schools

for the blind, deaf, and physically defective, and in a correspondingly greater degree must the teacher exercise patience, closely applied acute observation, and versatility, in meeting the needs of the various members of her unfortunate class.

London has no fewer than twenty-eight of these schools which appear to be conducted on rational scientific principles. The Drury Lane School for the Mentally Deficient which I visited, has the reputation of being one of the best of this class, and the quality of the results attained would indicate that the reputation is well deserved. This school, conducted in the same building as the Drury Lane Industrial Day Training School, consists of two classes—one for boys and one for girls,—in charge of two teachers admirably adapted to their work. These teachers are wholly different from each other in temperament, but in the best sense represent two well-nigh ideal types of teachers for such a school. One is quiet and wholly unobtrusive, but persistent, inspiring the confidence of the unfortunate boys under her charge, and thus acquiring an influence over them which enables her successfully to insist upon each boy's doing the best he possibly can. The other teacher, full of abounding life and vivacity, fairly compels the girls of her class by the contagion of her spirit and example, to put forth every possible effort of which their meagre mentality is capable, to grasp the meaning of the life of the busy wonder-world confined within the walls of their classroom. At a certain very elementary stage of her school life, an appeal, promptly responded to, is made to every girl by giving her a doll, the making of the clothes for which, together with its dressing and care, forms the foundation for the manual work which is so strongly emphasized here. The

girls are allowed the use of a sewing machine when they have advanced sufficiently with their work.

With the boys, various forms of manual training are tried, and every practicable device is used for their application, so as to find, if possible, something which appeals to each boy. In the course of time, the larger number of pupils, both boys and girls, grasp and

and cheery as possible with appropriate pictures, and with flowers and plants. Considerable attention is paid to the germination of the latter.

The children are fed here, a pot of soup being in readiness for serving at the time of my visit.

Of all the classroom work which I saw during my entire tour of observation, the most interesting to me was in



GOODRICH ROAD SCHOOL FOR THE MENTALLY DEFECTIVE—BRUSHWORK.

retain something of the elements of an education—a little reading and writing, and, in some cases, a trifle of the fundamental operations of arithmetic, and the most of them learn enough of manual and industrial work to make them small wage earners, and thus relieve the State of the burden of supporting them all their lives.

The school rooms are made as bright

this Drury Lane school for the mental defectives; and here, too, I saw the most skillful teaching of all I saw in Great Britain.

Schools for the Physically Defective.

The schools for the physically defective are, in the last analysis, really orthopaedic hospitals equipped for instruction in such portions of the ordinary elementary school course as the physical

condition of the individual patient will permit. The course of instruction includes, besides the ordinary studies, manual training adapted to the needs of the patient-pupil, and to its physical ability to perform it. Instruction is provided for children who are confined in hospitals temporarily, so that they will not lose their respective places in class at school, but after a cure is effected and they are discharged from the hospital, they may return to school and resume their former places as if they had not been absent from class at all.

Reformatory and Industrial Schools.

The London County Council's Education Committee does not appear to have any purely reformatory schools under its direct charge. It makes contracts, however, with the governing bodies of such other institutions of that kind as it can advantageously, to take the necessary care of offenders against the law, coming within the jurisdiction of the Education Committee and committed by due process of law to reformatories. This contract not only provides for the necessary physical care and well being of the offender, and for the requisite corrective measures, but for the actual education of the offender as well.

Industrial Schools.

The Education Committee of the County Council has several Industrial Schools under its direct management, and has agreements with the managers of several others for the care and education of such boys and girls as may be committed to these several institutions from the jurisdiction of the London County Council.

Truant Industrial Schools.

Truant Industrial Schools are residential industrial schools for boys committed for non-attendance at elementary schools. The number of boys com-

mitted to these schools has decreased as the severity of the fine imposed for non-attendance at school has been increased. The comparatively few girl truants with whom it has been found necessary to deal, are committed to ordinary industrial schools.

Day Industrial Schools.

Day industrial schools are described by the statutory law under which they were established, as follows:

Schools in which industrial training, elementary education, and one or more meals a day, but not lodging, are provided for the children. Children may be committed until they reach the age of fourteen years, but in no case may they be detained for a longer period than three years.

Ungraded Schools.

The ungraded schools of our own city do not seem to have an exact counterpart in the school system of London. The Truant and Day Industrial schools appear to include the features of our ungraded school, but do not present them quite in that form.

Scope of Work in Industrial Schools.

At the foregoing industrial schools of all classes, the children generally devote one-half of their time to school room work, and the other half to some industrial pursuit. The lower grade primary classes, however, attend school full time.

History and Methods of Day Industrial Schools.

Concerning the origin, nature, and methods of work of the Day Industrial schools, the following extract from a special report of the executive officer of the London County Council's Education Committee may be of interest:

The present Day Industrial Schools had their origin in the Ragged Feeding Schools, the first having been started in Aberdeen in the year 1841. Between 1845 and 1850 this example was followed in many of the great cities of England by philanthropists who in some cases received monetary support from

the Committee of Council on Education.

It was not until the passing of the Elementary Education Act, 1876, that these schools were officially recognized as schools "in which industrial training, elementary education, and one or more meals a day, but not lodging, are provided for the children." Under the powers contained in Section 16 of this Act, Orders in Council have been issued (20th March, 1877, and 25th October, 1881) making regulations for the constitution and conduct of such schools, defining the class of children to be sent to them, fixing the rate of parental

to fifty-two shillings a year for cases under an order of detention, and to twenty-six shillings a year in attendance order and voluntary cases.

The descriptions of children for whom these schools are particularly suitable are:—

1. Children of negligent parents upon whom the ordinary fines under the Education Acts have no effect.

2. Children of parents who are unable, owing to their occupations, which require them to leave their homes very early in the morning, to secure the attendance at an or-



PURBROOK INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL—HAYMAKING.

contributions and the rate of Government grant, and dealing generally with all other matters pertaining to the establishment, maintenance, and management of the schools. In cases sent under an order of detention, the parental contributions are fixed at a sum of not exceeding two shillings a week; and in those sent under an attendance order, or without an order of the Court (the latter being known as voluntary cases), at a sum not less than one shilling, nor more than two shillings a week. The Treasury contributions amount

to a ordinary day school of their children who may thereby become disobedient or neglected.

3. Children whose parents belong to the extremely improvident class and who are greatly neglected by them.

4. Children of intemperate parents where the father may be in receipt of good wages, but where the children are neglected.

5. Children who are running the streets, or begging, but whom it is undesirable and unnecessary to send to a residential school.

6. Children who have committed petty thefts, but who are not regular thieves.

7. Children who are charged by their parents with being beyond control.

Speaking generally, Day Industrial Schools are for troublesome children whose homes, however poor, are decent, and for children who are falling into bad and irregular habits through the want of proper supervision. They are not for the vicious or wandering child, nor for the persistent truant.

The curriculum differs, in extent only, from that of the ordinary Residential Industrial School, and consists of school work and industrial training in equal proportions, together with the usual recreation.

Wherever these schools have been established the general results have been decidedly good, necessarily varying with the locality and also with the policy and attitude of the local authority by whom they are maintained. The children make rapid progress with their school work and industrial training, especially having regard to the unfavorable condition of mental and physical backwardness in which they are usually admitted.

Owing probably to an insufficient acquaintance with the subject, the value of the work done in Day Industrial Schools is not generally appreciated. It is frequently contended that inasmuch as the children return each evening to their undesirable associations in the streets and to the often more objectionable surroundings in their homes, the effect of the school, if not entirely neutralized, is greatly diminished. For such opinions there is *prima facie*, plausible justification. As a matter of fact, however, actual experience has proved that the conclusion is not sustained. If no discrimination were exercised in the selection of cases committed to these schools doubtless many of them would be failures. It has been stated, however, that children are not sent from vicious or immoral homes, and with regard to other homes, many of them wretched and comfortless through thriftless and careless habits, it has, in numerous instances, been found that the training of the child and its acquisition of habits of cleanliness, order, and regularity have had a beneficial influence upon the home. The children, in fact, have reformed the home and improved the habits of the parents. With regard to the evil influences of the streets, it has to be recognized that they are no worse for the Day Industrial School child than for the elementary school child.

The following extracts from reports of Government Inspectors are strongly in favor of the Day Industrial School system for suitable children:—

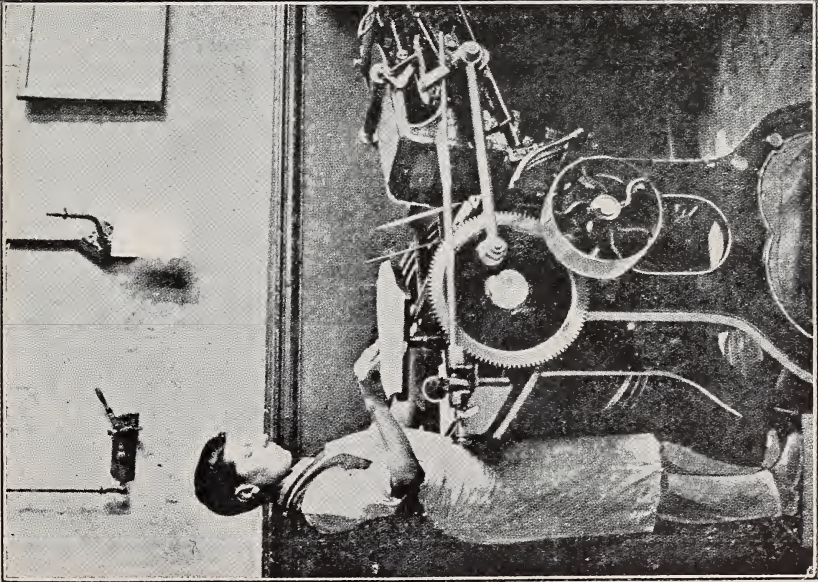
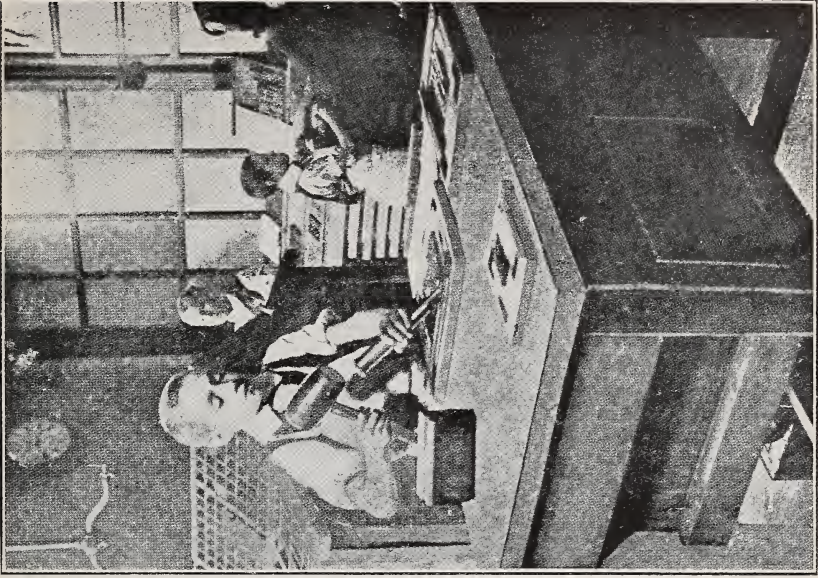
His Majesty's Inspector in his report for 1902 says:—"This class of school is so valuable an engine of social amelioration that it is a pity if any large town is without one, or, having one, allows it to languish solely for want of a proper appreciation of its function and merits. * * * For industrial training and effective disposal the London schools are still pre-eminent."

Again, in 1905, His Majesty's Inspector says:—"The number of admissions to Day Industrial Schools still shows a slight tendency to decline. * * * This result is disappointing when the value of these schools as perhaps the most effective instruments of social amelioration in the poor quarters of our large towns is fully considered. * * *

"It may be that the matter of expense, to which attention has been called in more than one of recent reports, may have militated against a more general use of Day Industrial Schools, but it is doubtful whether any municipal outlay would have a more genuine title to be called profitable. Be this as it may, the fact that the financial question has not been effectively raised by any local authority may be fairly regarded as a mark of the general apathy with regard to a difficult, but not insoluble, problem.

Drury Lane Industrial School.

The Drury Lane Day Industrial School which I visited for observation has an attendance of some seventy boys and four or five girls. The school is open for the reception of pupils at six o'clock in the morning and does not close until six o'clock in the evening. Besides the usual studies pursued in the elementary schools the boys are taught certain trades, such as shoe-making, carpentry, and printing. They are also taught band music and allowed to play in the excellent band made up of the pupils of the school with their instructor. The girls are now taught sewing and were formerly taught laundry work. But it was found that the laundry shops where the girls were usually employed after

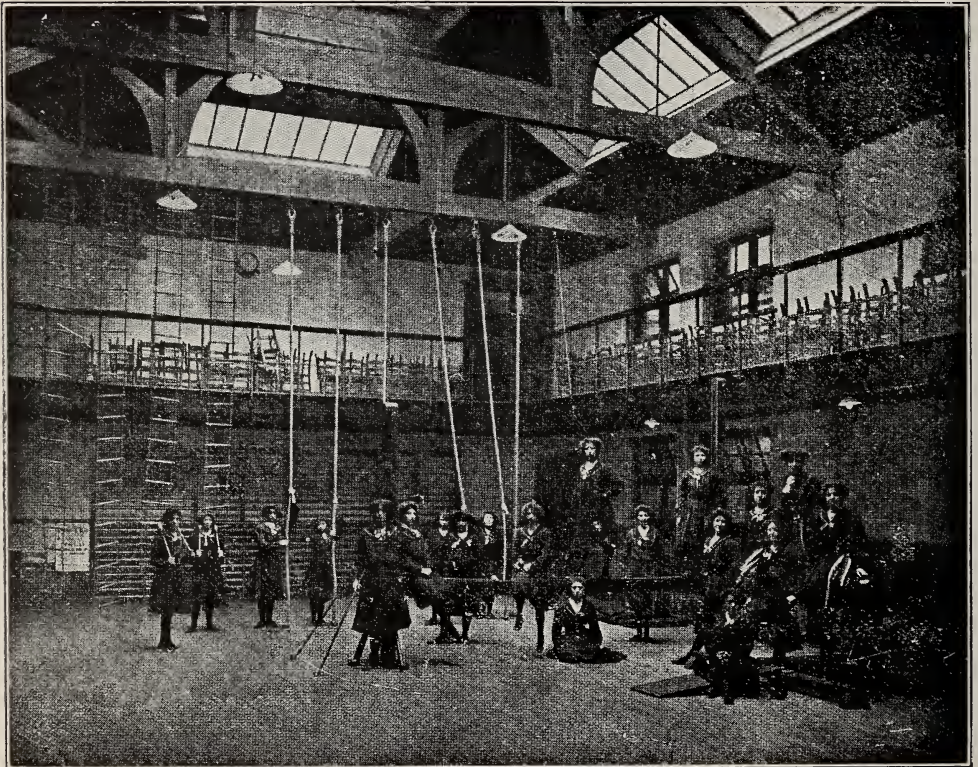


DRURY LANE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL—PRINTING.

leaving school were apt to be nurseries of vice where the girls were soon initiated into lives of shame; so that instruction in laundry work has been abandoned in the school, and the room formerly used for that purpose is to be converted into a department for teaching the boys metal work, since the neighborhood in which the school is situated, abounds in the metal trades, and the governor, or

fairly settled in his or her new environment.

The printing shop, though small, is equipped for the highest grade of fine job printing, and is in charge of an expert printer, under whose tuition the boys execute highly satisfactory work. The pupils who come from a radius of a mile of the school, have three meals a day at the school. The care of the



WOMEN'S GYMNASIUM.

head master, Thomas Humphrey, Esq., is strongly of the opinion that the industries taught in the school should be those readily accessible to the homes of its pupils. When a pupil has served the required length of time in the school, and is ready to go to work, the governor seeks out a suitable place of employment, and endeavors to keep track of the boy or girl until he or she is at least

dining hall is entrusted largely to the pupils. When a pupil shows a certain degree of improvement, he is transferred to a regular elementary school; but if his conduct does not continue satisfactory, he is returned to the industrial school.

I sought an opportunity to attend a session of court when delinquent children were presented for commitment to

industrial schools, but in this I was disappointed.

PHYSICAL CULTURE AND ATHLETICS.

As might be expected, physical development receives much attention among the British. Not only are there physical exercises in the school room, but open air recesses when the teachers go out with the pupils and oversee the games. Well equipped gymnasiums with special instructors for boys and girls alike, are common, and swimming pools accompany some of the gymnasiums. In some of these the water is changed once a week. On almost every hand I heard the fear expressed that athletics are carried to too great a length in England, however. This feeling I found shared by the schoolman and thoughtful layman alike.

HEAT AND VENTILATION OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

Except in the more modern, expensive buildings, the almost universal method of heating school buildings in Great Britain is by means of the open fireplace, and the ventilation is through the windows—usually wide open. The average temperature is supposed to be fifty-four degrees Fahrenheit, with a maximum of sixty degrees. One school which I visited where the building is of comparatively recent construction, the plans called for a heating plant for steam or hot water. As soon as the head master found what was to be done, he set about preventing the innovation. He was successful in having the regulation open fire places substituted for the original plant, and converted what was designed for a boiler room into an office.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

The training of teachers is a subject which has long been a serious problem with British educators. At the present time about two-thirds of the teachers of

London have had the advantage of a course in a training college of recognized standing. The course in case of the most, but by no means all, of these teachers has been two years in length. A very few have had a course extending over three years or more.

CONTROL OF TRAINING COLLEGES.

The most of the training colleges throughout the United Kingdom have been established by independent organizations—generally by religious bodies, but the number of day training colleges attached to the universities is growing, and a recent act of Parliament allows local authorities to establish training colleges of their own. In Scotland, as previously pointed out, the control of the training colleges has passed from the hands of the Presbyterian Church into those of the public authorities.

TRAINING COLLEGES IN LONDON.

The London County Council is now in possession of seven training colleges which it has established under the new act. Of these, five are for women only, and two are for men and women. These colleges provide for the training of about nine hundred teachers each year, besides about ninety students the Council has the privilege of naming for admission to the Goldsmiths' College at New Cross every year.

Length of Course.

The training course, generally speaking, extends over a period of about two years, and consists of instruction in general educational subjects, including that of the theory and practice of teaching. A certain number of weeks are devoted to practice teaching under a critic teacher, who is a member of the training college staff.

The course in the London Day Training College is three years in length. The first two years are devoted to preparation for the degree of Bachelor of Arts

or Bachelor of Science in London University, with which the college is affiliated, and the third year is devoted, for the most part, to purely professional work.

Complaint that Entrance to Teaching Profession is too Easy.

The present tendency is for teachers to obtain university recognition before entering the profession. At the same time there is a feeling more or less general that access to the teaching profession is too easy.

Report of London Teachers' Association.

The last report of the London Teachers' Association is pointed in this respect. After expressing satisfaction that the London County Council has taken certain decisive steps toward the elimination of "student" and other "uncertificated" teachers from the London schools, the report continues:

It is a fact, at any rate as far as London is concerned, that that which was known as the 'dearth' of teachers is now at an end. Information points to the fact that teachers certificated last year, are still without permanent employment, and it is certain that many who came out of college last July will not be able to obtain appointments for months to come, either in London or the Provinces. Under these circumstances, therefore, the Committee feel that the opening of two new training colleges by the Council, which recently took place, is a matter of the gravest concern. It is certain that in two years' time the glut of teachers in an already overstocked market will be greater than ever, and it is unnecessary to state that circumstances of that character demand the utmost vigilance on the part of a professional organization.

The report further states that the interests of women teachers, particularly, are threatened by this condition of affairs. But in other parts of England I found a scarcity of women teachers for secondary schools. Men there were in abundance, but eligible women for this class of work were difficult to find.

MARRIED WOMEN AS TEACHERS.

Report of London Teachers' Association.

Touching the question of employment of married women in the schools of London, the report already cited of the London Teachers' Association contains the following interesting paragraph:

It is possible that for the first time the employment of married women teachers may become a debatable matter in London educational politics. Needless to say, the whole weight of the Association will be thrown into the conflict to prevent the displacement of married women teachers. Recognizing the professional diploma as the sole entrance to the teaching profession, the Association claims that neither sex nor religion should be any disability to service as a teacher, and the incident of marriage should be no bar to continuation in the profession.

Special Regulations for Married Women.

Clearly, married women form an important class of their own in the English schools, a fact which is definitely recognized by school authorities, who, in enacting regulations for the government of schools under their charge, make special rules for married women. This is especially true of the regulations governing contagious diseases, where married women teachers are recognized as a class distinct from unmarried women and men. Certain other cases arise in which a code of detailed regulations apply to married women only.

Husband and Wife Employed as Teachers in Same School.

The employment of a man in the boys' department of a school in which his wife is a teacher in either the girls' department or infant department of the same school is by no means unknown. While I was in the office of the Secretary of the London Teachers' Association, a schoolmaster came in seeking advice as to a method of procedure whereby he could compel the authorities to place his wife in the same school as himself, and cited

instances in which that state of affairs existed. Indeed, I was informed by a gentleman well known in British educational circles, that on the occasion of one of his visits to the schools of London, he found that in one of the schools, the wife of the head master of the boys' department was an assistant (teacher) in the infant department; and that the head of the infant department was the wife of a Board inspector, and that the head of the girls' department was the wife of a journalist. I found nothing so bad as that myself and doubt if such a condition exists even in London today, where public sentiment is slowly awakening to the fact that such a plight of affairs is not wholly desirable.

This Practice Not Universal in Great Britain.

It should be observed that the example of London is not universal in England, nor is it emulated in the larger cities of Scotland.

The rules of the Birkenhead Education Committee include the following :

No married mistress shall be engaged upon the School Staffs without the special sanction of the Education Committee; and it shall be a condition in the employment of all mistresses that an engagement shall terminate on marriage.

In Glasgow, there are but two married women teachers living with their husbands, in a total of about two thousand teachers. There are some six or seven widows. In Edinburgh there is about the same number of widows as in Glasgow, and no married women living with their husbands, included in a total force of some eleven hundred teachers. Not only in this respect but in many others, the teaching profession and the cause of general education at large in Scotland is far in advance of that of England, resulting in a greater dignity for the profession, and a consequent

higher rank for the profession in public esteem.

Public Esteem in which Teaching Profession is Held in England.

One cannot well avoid the conviction after a little careful observation and inquiry into existing conditions that hitherto the personnel of the teaching force of the schools throughout England has not received the consideration which it deserves, and that the advanced standards recently set up for the qualifications of teachers is a move in the direction of elevating the teaching profession of the country from the position of ill-concealed contempt in which it is far too widely held.

DUTIES OF THE HEAD MASTER.

General.

According to the *Elementary School Code*, 1908, "Every school or department must have a head teacher, who shall be held responsible for the general control of the instruction and discipline."

In addition to the mechanical organization of the school as a whole, including assignment of assistant teachers, etc., the head teacher, or head master, prepares a time schedule, or programme, for the entire school, including each separate class; orders all the text-books, stationery, and other supplies for the school; and devotes himself to the general welfare of his school.

Preparation of Syllabus.

The preparation of the syllabus is a supreme test of the pedagogical skill of the head master. Formerly, this was prepared in the Board of Education offices of the Imperial Government, as it is now prepared in the office of our city superintendent, and sent out to the various schools, where it was merely the duty of the head master to see that its provisions were carried out.

But this method of procedure did not

appeal to the spirit of independence of the British school master, who is very jealous of his prerogatives. So that eventually, this uniform syllabus was abolished, and merely the subjects of the curriculum made uniform, and the problem of making the syllabus committed to the individual head master, who, after its preparation, submits it to the government for approval.

Advantages of Present Plan.

The superior advantages of this plan are believed to be two, primarily.

First: A largely increased professional freedom of the head master, with a consequent incentive to pedagogical initiative and growth, which were rendered impracticable under the former plan.

Second: Adaptation of the course of study to the immediate needs of the individual school.

Disadvantages.

Against the present plan is often urged the objection that for want of uniformity of instruction in different schools, it happens that children removing from one school to another suffer unduly. This objection is declared by the head masters and their superiors, however, to be so slight as to become a negligible quantity when compared with the advantages of the present plan. Indeed, it is asserted by many, that there is no actual loss, whatever, from the present plan over the former.

Ordering Supplies.

The freedom granted by the syllabus is strongly accentuated by a corresponding freedom allowed in the ordering of text-books and other school supplies, the latter being made possible by a very full, open list, anything on which may be ordered by the head master, so long as he keeps within the bounds of the appropriation, or yearly allowance, made to his school for that purpose.

Head Master Not Required to Teach.

Nowhere did I find any formal requirement that the head master should do any classroom teaching at all. On the contrary, he is left absolutely free to treat that question as the needs of his school, in his own good judgment, may require.

PICTURES.

A "Requisition List of Framed Pictures" is provided by the London County Council, from which pictures may be ordered by head masters in the same manner as books, stationery, and other supplies.

Whenever a new building is opened, it is supplied with pictures throughout at once, and additions may be made subsequently, according to the judgment of the head master.

The authorized list of framed pictures in London includes pictures under the following general subjects: Animals, birds, etc.; Bible pictures; castles, architecture, and historical buildings; cathedrals, churches, abbeys, etc.; children's pictures and friezes; great masters; historical pictures; landscapes, portraits; sculpture, etc.; seascapes, coast views, river scenes, etc.; miscellaneous.

These range in price from two shillings, ten pence, for an attractive but inexpensive print, seventeen inches by twenty-five inches, in a neat frame, to twenty-five shillings, two pence, for a bromide enlargement, thirty-seven inches wide by forty-seven inches in length. Frames, twenty-six inches wide by thirty-three inches long, are supplied at three shillings, seven pence, each, for holding several pictures of uniform size, costing nine pence each.

LONDON UNIVERSITY.

Possibly there is no other university in Great Britain which touches so inti-

mately the great masses of people as London University.

The history of this institution dates back to 1827, but not until nine years ago did it become more than an examining body, granting university recognition to those who presented themselves for examination.

An act of Parliament in 1898, provided for the complete reorganization of the university. This was accomplished in the years 1900-1901, when the new corporation, controlling and co-ordinating the higher education of London, began its active labors.

The new organization comprises, in addition to its examining functions, a considerable number of schools previously more or less independent as teaching bodies. These include, with others, University College and King's College with general faculties, some half dozen theological schools, several with faculties of arts and sciences, a considerable number of medical colleges, besides technological and agricultural institutions, and the recently established London School of Economics and Political Science.

Every institution represented in the university is entitled to a representative in the governing body. The University continues its function as an examining body granting degrees. The examinations are given in London, the provinces, and even in the Colonies. All graduates are entitled to a teacher's diploma.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION OF WOMEN.

Women were admitted to degrees in London University, in the year 1878. Since the year 1884, women have been admitted to instruction in Oxford University, but not to degrees. Women are also admitted to Cambridge University upon the same footing as at Oxford. At present, the admission of

women to the university is general throughout Great Britain.

There is still division of opinion in England as to the higher education of women. The most vital objection I heard urged, is the strong tendency to Bohemian life in the universities. It is seriously charged that the growth of the habit of cigarette smoking among English women receives a marked impetus at these institutions.

TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS.

National Union of Teachers.

Of the various teachers' organizations, the National Union of Teachers, for England and Wales, numbering upwards of 62,000 members is the largest. Its main objects as set forth in its official publications are as follows:

To associate and unite the teachers of the country, to provide a means of the expression of their collective opinion upon matters affecting the interests of education and the profession, to improve the condition of education, and to obtain a national system, to secure the official representation of educational interests in Parliament, to raise the qualifications and status of teachers, to watch the administration of Education Acts, to endeavor to secure the removal of difficulties, abuses, and obsolete regulations detrimental to progress, and to afford advice and assistance to its members in educational and professional matters.

The members of the organization support a Benevolent and Orphan Fund for which they raised upwards of \$100,000 in 1907, which supported, among its charities, a Girls' Home at Sheffield, and a Boys' Home at Sydenham.

Affiliated Local Organizations.

Affiliated with the National Union are nearly five hundred local organizations, scattered throughout the country. All these work in harmony with the central union.

London Teachers' Association.

The largest and most important is that

of the London Teachers' Association of nearly fifteen thousand members. The activities of this body include among others, the following: Professional help to its members, the publication of a monthly periodical entitled the *London Teacher*, a mutual insurance fund, a readers' club with exceptionable library privileges, co-operative arrangements for holiday travel by which it is estimated that upwards of \$10,000 a year is saved to the members of the Association, a co-operative trading scheme by which wholesale rates are secured to the members by special contract with representative establishments in all branches of commerce, and expert medical advice for its members at greatly reduced fees.

Educational Institute of Scotland.

In Scotland, the principal professional organization is the Educational Institute of Scotland. This is something more than a mere teachers' association. It is organized under a royal charter and possesses certain privileges of educational organization which enable it to contribute to the vital educational life of Scotland. This, like the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales, has a large number of subordinate, or affiliated, branches throughout the country.

The British Schoolmaster in Politics.

Apparently the phase of activity of all these organizations accentuated most, is the one which we would call the political side. In pursuance of this, the secretary of each of these organizations previously named, holds some government position, either local or national, which identifies him closely with the Imperial Government or with the governing bodies controlling the administration of the schools. For example, Mr. Yoxall, secretary of the National Union of Teachers is a member of Parliament, from the constituency of West Notting-

hamshire. The expenses incidental to the campaign for his election are borne by the National Union of Teachers. As a member of Parliament, he is expected to give particular attention to all legislation proposed, relating to the schools in England and Wales. In fact, he is in Parliament in the avowed interest of the teachers.

Mr. Gautrey, Secretary of the London Teachers' Association, is in like manner a member of the London County Council and assigned to the Education Committee of that body. In his official capacity he represents, directly, the partisan interests of the members of the London Teachers' Association.

Mr. Murray, Secretary of the Educational Institute of Scotland, is also in like manner a member of the Edinburgh School Board, and there looks after the interests of the Edinburgh teachers. Other members of these Associations occupy positions upon the governing boards of educational institutions throughout the country.

Absence of Bribery.

In this connection, I may say that, while the teachers of Great Britain openly and avowedly seek to protect and further their personal interests in the manner just described—a manner which, to put it lightly, seems very strange to Americans, I did not, on the other hand, find evidence of corrupt practices, constantly charged as prevalent in this country, prevailing to any appreciable extent, if at all. Political patronage may be said to be fairly well entrenched in school circles throughout Great Britain, but the use of money for bribery, or the custom of "graft," or "rake offs" in connection with school contracts I found no trace of, although I made careful inquiry into the commercial side of school affairs.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.

The practice of corporal punishment, I found practically universal, but hedged about with certain safeguards and restrictions which carefully protect it from abuse. This punishment is slight, administered on the hand by a cane supplied by the governing body upon the requisition of the head master, the same as any other school supplies. A careful record is required to be kept of

ENDOWED PUBLIC SCHOOLS.¹

One of the most interesting experiences I had was with the so-called great endowed public schools—Eton, Harrow, Rugby, and Charterhouse. I applied by letter to the head master of each of these schools for permission to visit them, asking that a day be appointed for the purpose, making clear that the main object of such a visit would be to observe the actual classroom work. From



ROYAL HIGH SCHOOL OF EDINBURGH.

all punishments, which is open to the inspection of the inspectors or other visitors to the school. That the effect of such punishment is good is apparent everywhere. Even in schools where corporal punishment is not resorted to, the head master would deplore the loss of the right to inflict it upon occasion if needed. The very fact that the pupils know it may be used has an influence for good upon them.

Harrow and Rugby, I received prompt replies cordially inviting me to visit the schools and inspect the buildings and grounds, but saying that visitors were not permitted in the classrooms during recitations. From Eton and Charterhouse, I received communications granting me the desired privilege.

¹ Unless specifically indicated to the contrary elsewhere in this report in speaking of *public schools* in Great Britain, the County Council, or Board, Schools, or their equivalent, are referred to and not the class of schools which are here spoken of as public schools.

For reasons over which I had no control, I was unable to visit Charterhouse, but my visit to Eton was a most delightful one. I also spent a pleasant day at the Birkenhead School, modeled after these schools, but of much more recent origin. Schools like these are unknown in this country, with a very few possible exceptions, of which the one at Groton, Massachusetts, is the most notable.

It should be borne in mind that English schools of this type take the place, not only of the elementary and high schools in this country, but in a certain way, of our colleges also, for the English system of education, like those of European countries generally, does not have the exact equivalent of the American college. However, a boy finishing his course at Eton, or Harrow, for example, may be regarded, from an American standpoint, as having graduated from college, and ready to enter upon graduate, or university work properly so-called, but there the baccalaureate degree is not awarded until the completion of a university course.

Nevertheless, despite the criticisms that might be passed upon these schools, not only from an American point of view, but by many English people as well—oftentimes those who have been educated in them, or those who have been associated with them as masters—the fact remains that from these schools came the men who are now, and those who are to be in the future, the virile flower of English civilization. The classical teaching in these schools is the best in England, and the school life is unique.

MEDICAL INSPECTION.

Just at this time medical inspection is receiving particular attention throughout Great Britain. Recent legislation has made it possible to extend the scope of the work and to provide for its being done more thoroughly than heretofore.

Now Compulsory.

While the act of 1907 makes medical inspection compulsory in England from January 1, 1908, there were some forty-seven localities outside of London which took advantage of a previous act permitting such inspection, so that when the new act with its mandatory provisions became operative, there was sufficient literature upon the subject, based upon English experience, to furnish a working basis for its general extension.

Dr. Hackworth Stuart, medical officer to the Hanley Education Committee, in a brief treatise, recently published, based upon several years' experience in medical inspection of schools makes the following pointed observation:

In working out a satisfactory scheme it is needful to keep in view primary objects and not be tempted unduly to enlarge the field of investigation, to the sacrifice of any part of that vast amount of definite practical work which lies close at hand and calls for immediate attention.

He further says:

One of the foremost objects of a sound scheme is that of bringing home to the parents their responsibilities, when physical defects occur in the children. [The italics are his.]

He is of the opinion, however, that

At present any satisfactory scheme must give place to the compilation of statistics for anthropometric survey, as compared with the practical aim of securing relief from physical defects which render children unfit for school life and cause waste of public money.

He then proceeds to outline a form of index card for the purpose of compiling this information, which, in its general scope, is similar to that recently adopted in this city. A like form is in use throughout Great Britain, with variations as to details to fit the needs of different localities.

AMERICAN INFLUENCES UPON BRITISH EDUCATION.

Evidences are not wanting of the influence of American education upon that of England and Scotland.

American Text-Books.

American text-books are finding their way into British schools. One well-known American publishing house, handling text-books for schools and colleges almost exclusively, has already built up a thriving business in Great Britain; and other houses, doing a general publishing business, with branches on both sides of the ocean, are successfully introducing their American text-books for schools on the other side.

Pedagogical Books.

Two American pedagogical books which I heard spoken of in terms of highest praise, are the *Evolution of Dodd*, by William Hawley Smith, and *Jean Mitchell's School*, by Angelina W. Wray.

Longfellow, Washington, etc.

Longfellow is a great favorite with all British people, and in places it almost seemed as if more attention had been paid to his poetry than to that of any British author.

In one school which I visited in Swansea, the head master had a class of boys sing *Columbia, the Gem of the Ocean* for me in a very spirited manner. In the same school, I found General Washington selected along with the Duke of Wellington and General Gordon, as the three finest examples of manhood and gentle, well-bred courtesy.

American Fads.

Then again "American fads," as they are styled, were spoken of constantly, with the remark, as I think I have previously pointed out, that about once in eighteen months a new one makes its appearance.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Institutions Visited.

Industrial training is one of the burning topics in British education. In connection with this phase of the work, I visited the Shoreditch Technical Insti-

tute, the Central School of Arts and Crafts in Southampton Row, and the Polytechnic School in Regent Street in London; the Central Technical School in Liverpool; the Municipal School of Technology in Manchester; the Glasgow and West of Scotland Technical College in Glasgow; and the Municipal Trade School, or Städtischen Gewerbeschule, in Munich.

Shoreditch Technical Institute in London.

The Shoreditch Technical Institute has been established some ten years and is situated among a class of people for whose needs it was intended, but whom the school has signally failed to reach. This fact is greatly deplored by the director, Mr. Shadrack Hicks, who frankly avows that the Institute literally is not of the people among whom it stands. This, be it remembered, is by no means saying that the school is not doing good, efficient work, but I do mean to say that the class of people whom its founders and organizers hoped to reach have not been attracted to it.

Its evening departments, which is by far its largest feature, embraces, among others, the following subjects: Cabinet-making and allied trades; building and other trades; and, for women, cooking, upholstery, trade dressmaking, designing and making of ready-made clothing, with a department for training teachers in dressmaking and millinery.

Central School of Arts and Crafts in London.

The Central School of Arts and Crafts on Southampton Row, was established some twelve years ago in another part of the city, and has only very recently been installed in its new home. This gives instruction in the following general groups: Architecture and building crafts; silversmiths' work and allied crafts; book production; cabinet work and furniture; drawing, design and

modelling; needlework; stained glass work, mosaic and decorative painting.

I may say, in passing, that in the cabinet shop of this school, I saw the finest artificial light for the purpose, I have ever seen. It was a reflected light, and threw no perceptible shadow.

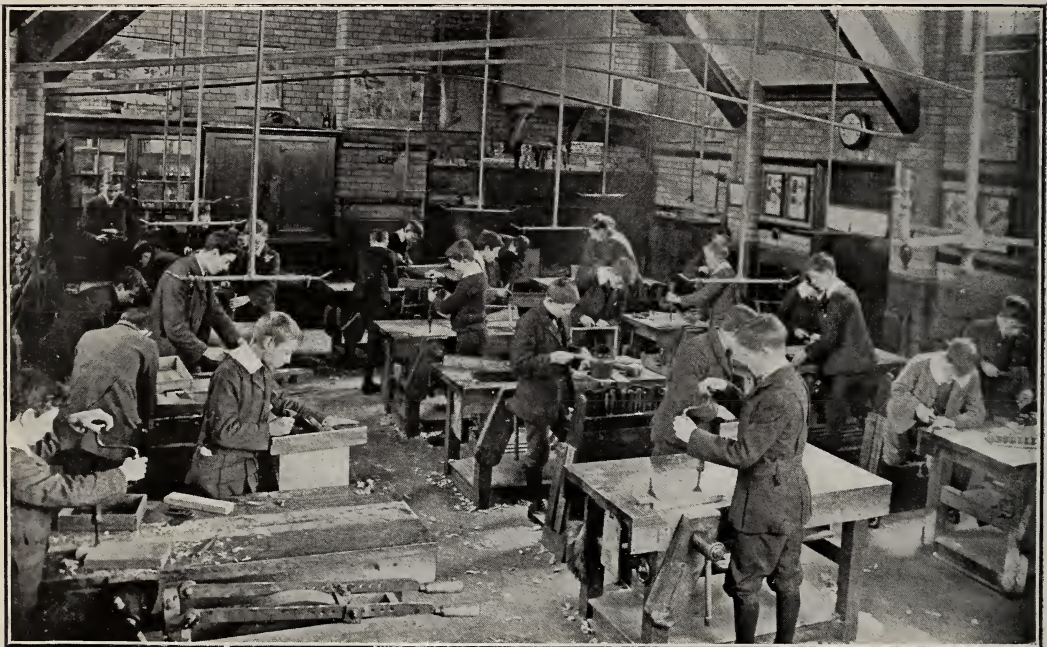
London Polytechnic School.

The Polytechnic School in Regent Street, in addition to its schools of arts and crafts, offers a general line of technical courses in almost every subject,

sheet, plate and bar metal workers, plumbers; carpenters and joiners; house painters and decorators.

Manchester Municipal School of Technology.

The Manchester Municipal School of Technology, established eighty-five years ago in a very modest way, has grown and developed into a magnificent plant, luxuriously housed and lavishly equipped in two buildings, at an aggregate cost of about \$1,500,000.



CLASS IN MANUAL TRAINING (CARPENTRY) IN ISLINGTON HIGHER ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.

and forms a sort of social centre, besides, providing for the wants of its patrons in a range of subjects extending from public lectures to tours to all parts of the world.

Central Technical School in Liverpool.

The Central Technical School in Liverpool provides systematic courses for students as follows: Building trades students; engineering trades students; electrical students; electric wiremen;

The general scope of the work of this institution may be indicated by the following brief outline of the subjects in which courses are offered: For day classes—Mathematical courses; first year general course; mechanical engineering; physics and electrical engineering; municipal and sanitary engineering; applied chemistry under the following topics:

a. General Technological Chemistry.

- b. *Chemistry of Textiles (Bleaching, Dyeing, and Printing.)*
- c. *Manufacture of Paper.*
- d. *Metallurgy and Assaying.*
- e. *Brewing.*
- f. *Electro-Chemistry.*
- g. *Photography.*

Besides the foregoing, the following are included: Photography and the printing crafts; engineers' apprentices' course; plumbers' apprentices' course; architectural courses; library assistants' course; and textile manufacture.

For evening classes, instruction is offered in the three general departments of Science, Technology, and Art, with sub-divisions of each.

Glasgow and West of Scotland Technical College.

The Glasgow and West of Scotland Technical College was incorporated in 1879, but its previous history extends back to the closing years of the eighteenth century. A series of new buildings are in course of completion which will ultimately form the largest structure of the kind in Great Britain.

The subjects in which courses are offered are the following: Mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, technical chemistry, metallurgy, mechanics, engineering, drawing, civil engineering, motive power engineering, electrical engineering, mining and geology, naval architecture, architecture and building trades, botany and bacteriology, zoology, physiology, history and theory of music, plumbing, sheet metal work, printing and allied trades, watch making and clock making, baking, boot making, tailoring and weaving.

The Municipal School of Technology in Manchester is, by common consent, the best institution of its kind in the British Isles.

The Municipal Trade School in Munich

will be treated in connection with the account of my visit to Munich.

Two Opposing Influences in Industrial Education.

I am strongly impressed that there are two powerful influences seeking to guide the trend of industrial education in Great Britain, if not throughout Europe, generally, today. One is that of the workman who seeks nothing more than an opportunity to develop his skill as an artisan in his chosen trade, and naturally this is the popular view—the view which, if I am not mistaken, is in the last analysis the general view of the subject held in this country.

The other view is that held by the few far-seeing educational leaders who have the ultimate well-being of mankind in a more fundamental sense at heart and desire to make industrial training something more nearly approaching education in its real meaning—a view which was expressed by Mr. J. H. Reynolds, the Director of the Manchester Municipal School of Technology, when he said that the institution of which he was head was “not a trade school, but a school for tradesmen.” A statement which he explained by saying that they scrupulously avoided teaching a trade, but that they did seek to teach the scientific principles of that trade. For example, their department of textile manufacture was so organized that a man might learn all of its science without its commercial application. The latter was left until the man should learn it in a factory operated on a commercial basis. Then it was hoped that the scientific knowledge he had acquired and the training he had had at school would enable him to become a commercial organizer of machinery and labor as no training acquired in the commercial plant alone would ever enable him to be. The difference, fundamentally, is that be-

tween the training of the apprenticeship and that of the well organized technical laboratory and its legitimate accompaniments.

Drawing as Related to Industrial Education.

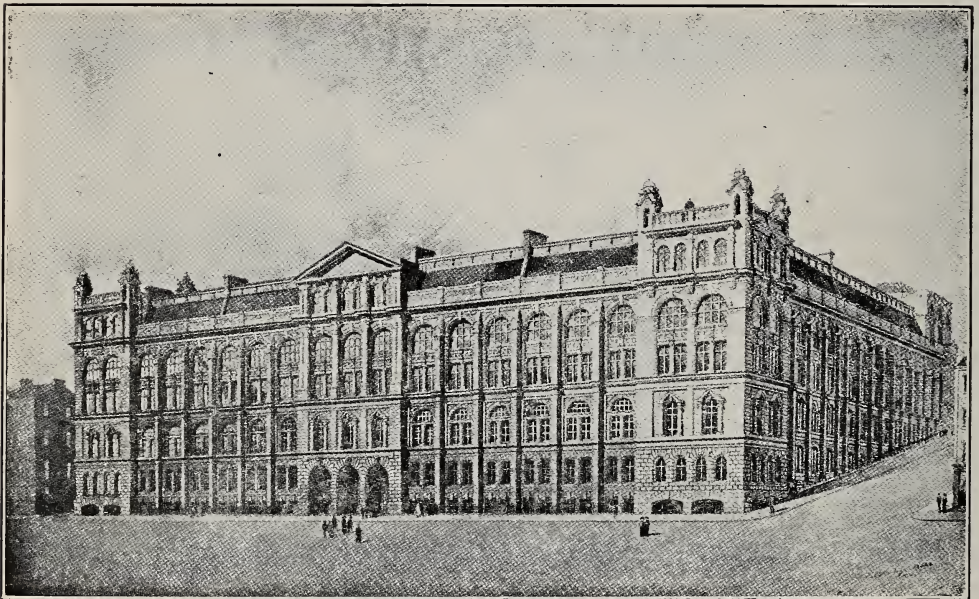
Moreover, I am impressed that whether one takes the one view or the other, the formal drawing found throughout the elementary and higher grade schools of Great Britain is to be one of the strongest factors contributing to the success of the trade school, or school for tradesmen.

crafts and technical training Americans cannot well overlook.

LEYDEN.

Elementary School.

My visit to Leyden was one full of interest from an educational point of view. I had opportunity to visit but a single grade school—and that a girls' school of some three hundred pupils with thirteen teachers averaging about twenty-five children to the class. Twenty-five is the maximum number allotted to a class.



THE GLASGOW AND WEST OF SCOTLAND TECHNICAL COLLEGE.

It is the sort of training demanded for that kind of school, and the more drawing of that type is emphasized, the more successful will their schools of arts and crafts become. In this connection, I will anticipate by calling attention to the vast amount of drawing required in the Municipal Trade School, or *Stadtischen Gewerbeschule*, in Munich as preliminary to actual shop work. There their cry is "Draw! draw!! draw!!! draw!!!! and draw without ceasing." These features of schools of arts and

The school has no kindergarten and the children enter at six years of age.

Languages.

In the fourth year the pupils begin the study of French, their first foreign language. This is followed in a year or two by beginning German without dropping French, and during the last two years of their course, English is studied collaterally with French and German. This language work is all done in addition to the usual work in the pupil's native tongue included in the course of an

ordinary elementary school of any enlightened country, and the course there offered would compare favorably with that of our grammar schools with a ninth year added.

Manual Work.

In manual work, I found the girls learning knitting, sewing, embroidery, and the old time sampler work. Garment-making is taught complete from measuring and cutting out, to the finished article, which is often designed for wear by the pupil herself. The knitting is of the intensely practical kind, consisting of wool yarn stockings, usually, for personal wear. Crocheting is also taught.

Drawing and Music.

There is a special teacher for drawing, a subject in which the work is all very formal, consisting either of applied design or the work preliminary to it.

Music is taught entirely by the classroom teacher. In physical training the pupils of the lower grades are taught by a man. Those in the upper grades have a woman for instruction in that subject.

Building.

The school building was immaculate, the neatest and cleanest school building I saw in Europe.

The rooms were heated throughout by the typical Dutch stoves—one in each classroom, and a temperature of from 55° to 60° Fahrenheit was sustained.

Recitations.

I listened to several recitations, among them one in English—an advanced class in that subject. The lesson consisted of reading a rather obscure English novel, the meaning of which the girls appeared to grasp without great difficulty. The recitation, wholly in English, was conducted very like the average American teacher treats a modern foreign language recitation, from which the use of English is wholly excluded.

This school I visited without previous notice or warning. I was received by the head mistress and her associates with great cordiality and treated with the utmost courtesy.

Neatness.

The neatness and good order of the entire school made a strong impression on me. All written work was put into books with which the pupils were provided for the purpose. Scraps or loose sheets of paper for desk work were not to be seen. Yet the books showed the greatest care and neatness, with very few mistakes. There was no blackboard nor slate work. The only blackboard in the classroom was a small one near the teacher's desk for her exclusive use.

Illustrative Helps.

I was impressed by the wealth of pictorial illustrative material, representing various industries. For example, a series of large colored lithographs mounted upon heavy cardboard was hung upon the walls of one classroom, representing, first, a forest where the trees were felled and made ready for transportation to the saw mill. Then each separate, successive stage was shown of the process by which the saw logs were taken from the forest and changed finally into finished products of various kinds. All of the great leading industries of the world were treated in a similar manner at some place in the school.

University of Leyden.

After a visit to this school, I went to the University of Leyden, but found the lecture halls empty, owing to a fall of snow the night before, which the students had appropriated a holiday to enjoy. So that all I could do was to make a tour of the grounds and buildings under the leadership of a guide. In the Law Department where I found a small group of students, including

three or four women, I was made conscious that this staid old institution has become co-educational, and learned that it has enrolled among its student body about one hundred and sixty women students, mostly in the departments of Law and Medicine. Queen Wilhelmina is a member of the governing body of the university and is usually very regular in her attendance upon its sessions, evincing a keen, intelligent interest in its proceedings.

Industrial Training.

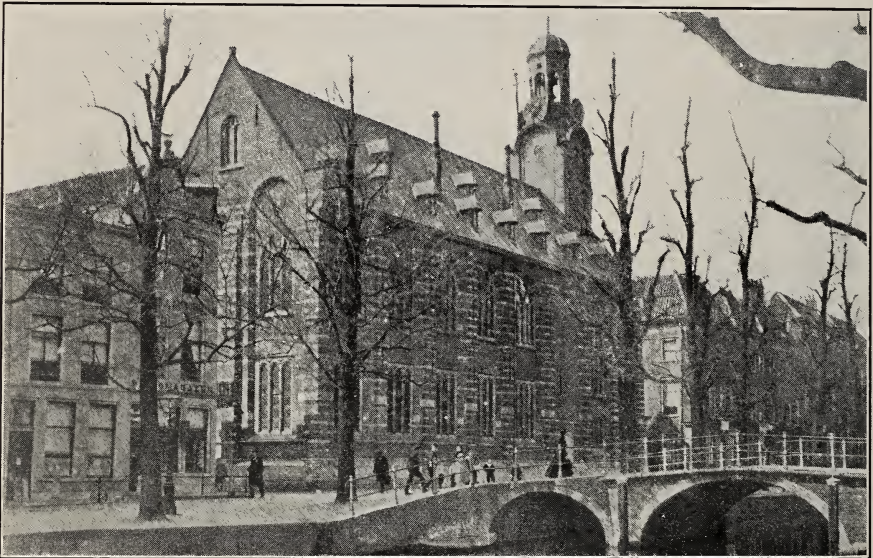
While in Holland, I had no oppor-

and I had to content myself with what I could gather from a visit to the University of Berlin, on such a day, when the attendance was nearly as light as I had previously found it at Leyden.

MUNICH.

Industrial Education.

In Munich, I visited the Städtischen Gewerbeschule München and the Technischen Hochschule, spending the most of my time in the former which I went to Munich particularly to see. Here as usual, cordial courtesies marked the treatment which I received at the hands of the



UNIVERSITY OF LEYDEN.

tunity to visit any institution of industrial training, but upon inquiry I found that one had recently been established at Delft, which is intended to become the centre of a system of trade schools which shall extend throughout the kingdom.

BERLIN.

The day I had given myself for Berlin proved to be a very stormy one of wind and snow, a veritable blizzard, so that it was impracticable for me to make a contemplated visit to Charlottenburg,

authorities in charge of the school, and I was deeply impressed with the thoroughness of the work demanded as preliminary to the course desired as well as the course itself. The school is open every day in the week, Sundays included, the school being in session from eight o'clock in the morning until twelve o'clock, noon, on Sunday, for the benefit of apprentices who cannot take the regular courses through the week, but a pre-requisite invariably insisted upon for admission to the school on Sunday is

that of two hours careful work in drawing in the evening of each of the other six days of the week.

Drawing.

It would seem as if everything done

wood, or other material, before the actual process of construction, or manufacture, was begun. Then the drawing of whatever character it might be, whether freehand or mechanical, was



MUNICIPAL TRADE SCHOOL IN MUNICH.

in the school depended primarily upon a most carefully finished drawing in detail of the object to be constructed, or manufactured, whether of metal,

done with a care which forbade the making of a single mis-stroke or a single superfluous stroke. Take, for example, a bit of Venetian ironwork to be done—

a screen or piece of grille work, possibly. Before the pupil begins his task in the shop, a careful drawing is made, which, when completed, shows the final product in all the minute details of its finished state, so that with the exception of actually handling the iron and hammer the pupil may fairly be said really to have completed the work before going into the metal workshop.

Disposition Made of Fine Work.

One exquisite piece of Venetian iron work, the foreman of the shop naïvely informed me, would find its way into the salesroom of a certain well-known dealer in antique furniture in Paris, there to be sold, after it had received certain treatment to give it an appearance of great age, as the artistic product of skilled handicraft of centuries ago; and, if a layman may be permitted to judge, the dealer would have no difficulty in selling the article as represented, so excellently had the workmanship paved the way for it.

Deutsches Museum von Meisterwerken der Naturwissenschaft und Technik.

Munich contains a most interesting museum known as the Deutsches Museum von Meisterwerken der Naturwissenschaft und Technik, an institution such as would be a most valuable educational asset to any city. This museum is of very recent origin, having been opened in November, 1906, with ceremonies of state. It was about three years from the time the general plan was first made public until it was ready for opening, and despite its being so new, it is very complete and satisfactory. As the plan has been worked out, it is designed to show the history of the progress and development of physical and technical science. For example, the history of the science of chemistry is shown from the crude cloister-like cell of the alchemist to the complete well organized laboratory of the modern

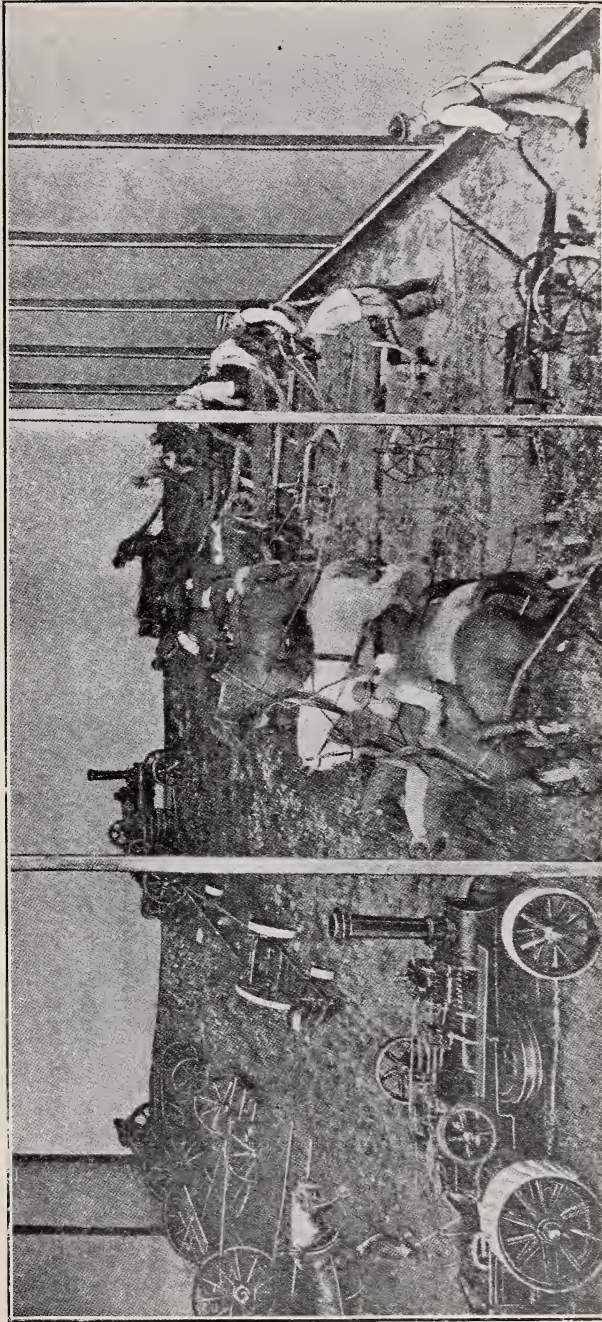
chemist. The history of piano making is displayed through all the stages of development from the clavichord and harpsichord to the magnificent grand piano-forte we see in luxurious, modern drawing rooms. The history of harvesting machinery is exemplified, from the crude sickle to a perfect model of the great modern harvester which moves through the vast fields of the great wheat-producing regions of the Northwest, taking the grain from the straw as it stands in the fields, and leaving it cleaned ready for market in bags on the ground.

The field of geology is covered in an equally satisfactory manner. So are all the fields of applied mechanics—both experimental and industrial, or commercial. Astronomy, geodesy, mathematics, mechanics, optics, heat, acoustics, electricity and magnetism, telegraphy, printing, photography, clocks and other related mechanism, textile machinery, agricultural machinery of all kinds, hydraulics, bridge-building, canal building, naval architecture; these indicate something of the range of subjects, and their subdivisions, illustrated in the most realistic manner possible, and all treated in such a way as to be understood fairly well, at least, by an ordinary, intelligent spectator.

A museum of this type is of untold value in educating and informing the public mind concerning the progress of the material side of the world's history.

Tendency Toward Materialism.

I cannot close that part of my report relating to Germany without speaking of a feeling of alarm which is already discernible among her own people as to the materialistic tendency of education in that country and its effect upon their national life. This fear is felt and expressed even by the busy man of affairs engaged in the crowded walks of commercial activity. A cloud of danger of losing sight of their religious and ethical



SECTION OF THE DEUTSCHES MUSEUM VON MEISTERWERKEN DER NATURWISSENSCHAFT UND TECHNIK
SHOWING THE DEVELOPMENT OF PLOWING

standards of a high order of life, by their becoming too completely wrapped up in pursuit of sordid wealth, with a subsequent reaction to a career of mere ephemeral personal pleasure, apparently is looming high enough above the horizon to cause serious reflection and thought among the German people.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

For any one in the brief space of seven weeks to attempt to acquire more than the merest superficial knowledge of the educational systems of five countries which he has never visited before, would be as absurd as it would be futile, and my description of the school systems of these countries, in so far as I have treated them, is based upon such information as I gathered from those with whom I obtained interviews, and from other convenient available sources—observations, so to speak, of these schools, rather than from any actual, extended study of them.

Excellent Teachers.

From my observations, I am well convinced that throughout Great Britain there are to be found devoted, consecrated teachers and educational leaders who are earnestly striving after what is loftiest and best in pedagogical ideals—ideals in methods, ideals in results.

Scotch Education in Advance of English.

That, generally speaking, Scotland is immeasurably in advance of England and Wales, as regards education, is most clearly self-evident. That there are parts of England and Wales immeasurably in advance of other parts of these same countries, is equally true.

London and Swansea.

In London, I saw some as good secondary school work as I have ever witnessed. In Swansea, I found most excellent primary reading—the best I heard while gone—obtained by the use of a

phonic method. There I also observed highly commendable work in language and in English Literature.

Edinburgh.

In Edinburgh, there was exhibited some very clever work in geography, with which was correlated most effectively, geology, botany, language work—both written and oral—history and English Literature. In the same school I saw some brilliantly executed quick-step marching of the pupils into and out of school.

In Professor D. S. Calderwood's department of Method in English Literature, in the Teacher's Training College of Edinburgh I listened to one of his pupils give an illustration of a presentation to a class, of Portia's celebrated address to the court, in the *Merchant of Venice*, beginning, "The quality of mercy is not strained," etc., that I could well wish might be repeated in the high schools throughout our own country, for the benefit of the students.

I was also greatly interested in certain achievements of the infant department of one of the elementary schools of Edinburgh.

A physical culture exercise in a higher elementary school in Islington in the north of London excited my warmest admiration.

These are a few of the good features I noticed of the work in Great Britain.

Comparison Between Great Britain and America.

But to compare American schools with British schools in any close sense, is out of the question, because of the fundamental differences between the social fabrics of the two nations.

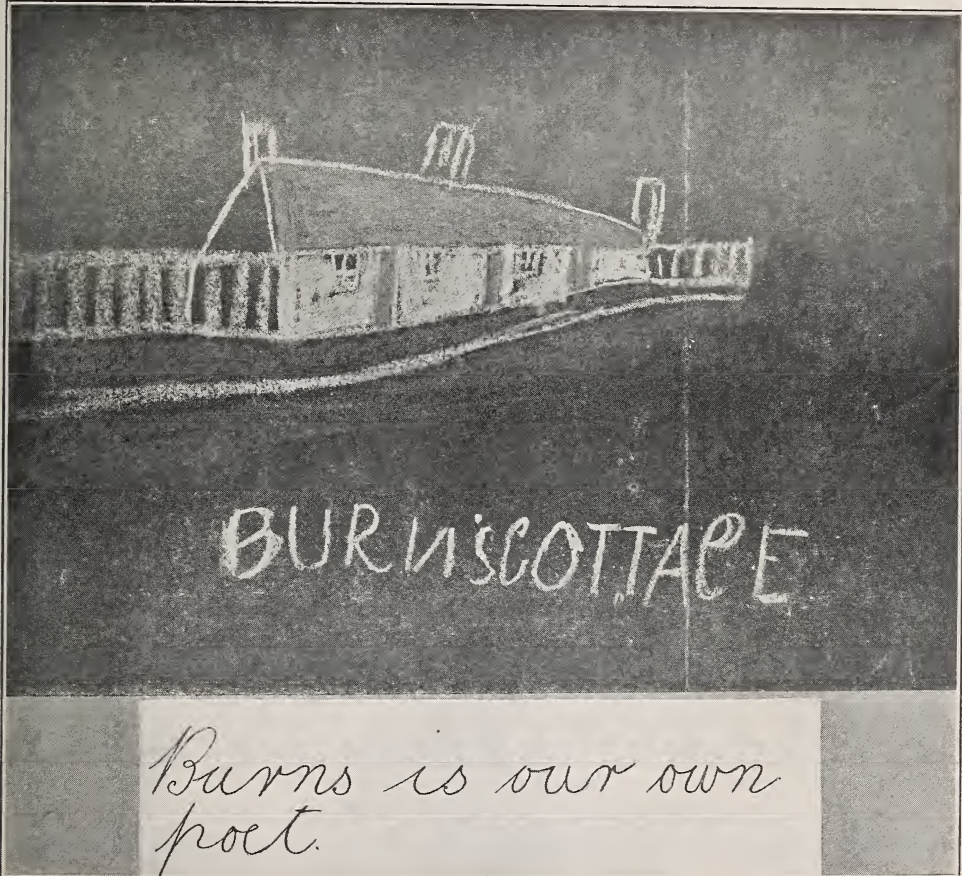
There are things in the schools of each, however, that may be worthy of consideration by the other. If English education were made a little less material and commercial, I think it would

better conserve the interests of the people. On the other hand, we, possibly, may learn something from the definiteness and precision of the aim of methods in British education. On the material side, their modern, massive buildings, with their magnificent equipment, form an example well worthy of our imitation.

educational institutions a country has fostered, and it is far easier to compare such results than to compare merely the machinery by which they have been produced.

Points of British Superiority.

Judging such results, I am constrained to feel that in two respects British education is superior to ours.



BURNS' COTTAGE. A SPECIMEN OF WORK FROM THE INFANT DEPARTMENT OF THE ALBION ROAD SCHOOL OF EDINBURGH. DRAWING AND WRITING BOTH BY A CHILD SIX YEARS OF AGE, WHO HAS BEEN IN SCHOOL ONE YEAR.

The Ultimate Test.

In the last analysis, however, it is to the ultimate results of the educational system of any country that we must look for that upon which we may pass final judgment. It is in such results that we find the product of whatever

First: The taproot of our educational life has not reached down so deep as has that of Britain. It has not yet penetrated to the deep springs of life whence issue the streams of creative power and discovery which mark the epochs, or great events, in the history of the prog-

ress and development of science and art and literature. The issues of our life are from more superficial sources. We have produced a Thomas A. Edison, but not a Lord Kelvin nor a Sir William Crookes.

Second: The tree of our national, or educational life, has not borne a flower of such exquisite beauty nor of such delicate fragrance as that of our mother country. Our civilization is not old enough. It is a thousand years back to Alfred the Great, but not even three hundred years to the Mayflower.

It is to our schools that we must look for the forces which shall enable us to overcome the seven centuries' advantage the parent nation has of us, and give to us the greater glory also. Therefore it behooves us to strengthen our schools accordingly, from kindergarten to university, with all due care and caution.

INTERCHANGE OF VISITS.

Of the beneficent results of the interchange of visits really inaugurated by the Mosely Commission which visited this country under the leadership of Sir Alfred Mosely in the autumn and early winter of 1903, followed by a visit of British teachers to this country in 1906-1907, and then the return visit of American teachers to the British Isles in 1908-1909, all at the initiation of Sir Alfred Mosely, not the least is the personal acquaintances formed between the representatives of the two nations, and the opportunity for each to acquire

even a superficial personal knowledge of the national life—both public and private—of the country of the other.

If, as rumored, Sir Alfred Mosely is to continue this good work, we may hope that not only will the acquaintance already formed extend and become more intimate, but that ere long it will be arranged that at least a limited number of visitors from each nation may remain long enough in the country of the other to obtain a fairly comprehensive and thorough knowledge of the actual organization and methods of the school system of the other.

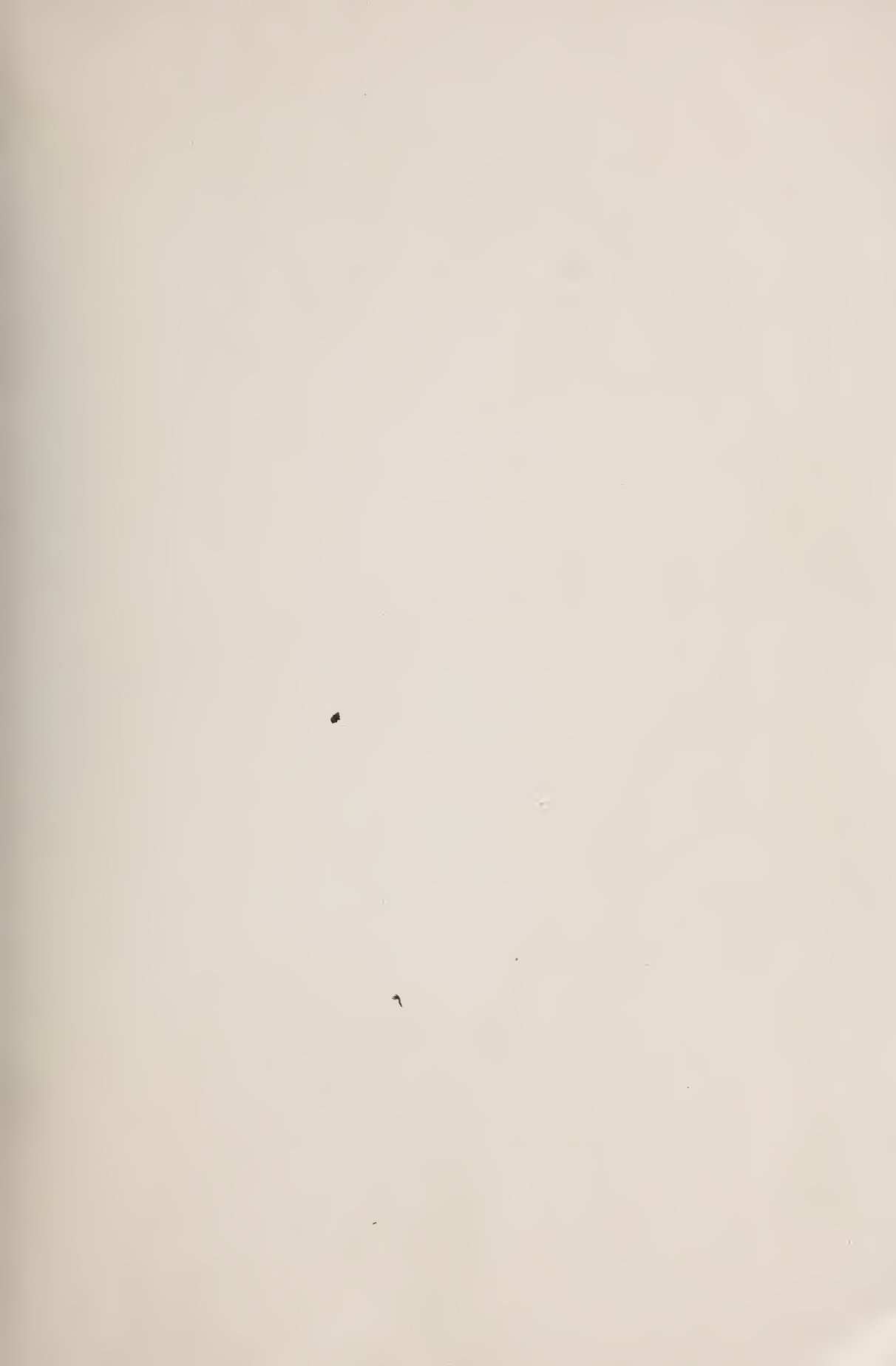
I cannot close without speaking of the very favorable impression made by the three Newark visitors—Miss Hasbrouck, Miss Chase, and Mr. Taylor—who preceded me, to all of whom I am indebted not only for manifold courtesies shown me in preparation for my own trip abroad, but for paving the way for any one from this city who might follow them, to meet with a more than cordial reception at the hands of the British people.

In conclusion, I beg to thank the Committee and Board of Education for the confidence in me implied in conferring upon me the honor of appointment as their representative abroad.

Respectfully submitted.

CORLISS FITZ RANDOLPH.

*Public School Principals' Association,
of Newark, New Jersey.*



NOV 16 1912

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS



0 022 116 173 7